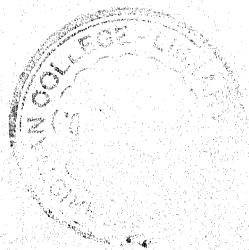# THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

PRINCIPLES AND METHODS

BY

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PREFACE

ALTHOUGH the literature on the subject of foreign-language teaching is rich and extensive, there is still a dearth of handbooks of suggestions for the guidance of teachers of English as a secondary language in junior schools.

It is not sufficiently appreciated that the problems confronting the English instructor in the lower schools of India, the Middle East and Africa are not identical with those which beset the teacher of French or German in English or American secondary schools, where the foreign language is usually begun at the more advanced age of twelve, in smaller classes, and after a correspondingly more satisfactory grounding in the application of the mother-tongue. On the other hand, for the masses of children throughout Asia and Africa, with their numerous vernaculars, English is not a foreign language in the European sense but a vital medium of education, giving access to a broader culture and providing an auxiliary language for ordinary use.

In view of the exceedingly vast number of children now engaged in the learning of English, the possible wastage of time and effort that must ensue from the application of wrong principles and faulty methods constitutes a problem of great magnitude. It would be futile to search for a perfect system that would eliminate all waste ; the gain would be sufficiently great in the aggregate if all teachers merely improved their own methods and achieved comparatively better results. General improvement can only

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be brought about by the co-operation of all engaged in the subject: instructors, text-book compilers, supervisors and administrators. The provision of a handbook designed, not to present a system based on a single peda-gogic or psychological device, but to provide a com-prehensive course subject to modifications, may serve a useful purpose and be welcomed accordingly.

This book has been written in the belief that theory and practice are equally indispensable for the successful treatment of so highly complex a subject as foreign-language teaching, in which method plays an unusually vital part. No teacher can afford to ignore such contro-versial questions as Translation or Direct Method, Formal or Functional Grammar, Silent or Oral Reading, Free Expression or Drill Methods. An attempt has been made here to approach these problems objectively by presenting the valid arguments of conflicting schools of opinion. The conclusions which are arrived at will, it is hoped, have the merit at least of proving an attitude free from prejudice.

The writer's indebtedness to past and present contribu-tors to the science and art of language teaching will be fully apparent from the quotations and references inter-spersed throughout the book. It is hoped that the teachers who are not acquainted with the writings of Sweet, Jespersen, Vendryes, Wyld, Handschin, Palmer and West will be encouraged by the excerpts quoted here to consult these standard authors. For the writer, the works of H.E. Palmer and Michael West, on the productive and receptive sides of language respectively, have been par-ticularly stimulating; as have also those highly authorita-tive compilations: *Modern Studies* (being the Report of

the Committee on the Position of Modern Languages in the Educational System of Great Britain), the *Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection*, and *A Summary of Reports on the Modern Foreign Languages* (Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages).

<div align="right">I. M.</div>

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‘ The proof that a problem which initially appears simple is in reality exceedingly complex is a distinct advance in knowledge and an essential step to the solution of the problem.’   KNIGHT DUNLAP : *Habits*

A HIGHLY COMPLEX SUBJECT

THE belief is prevalent that the teaching of a foreign language is a comparatively simple subject. This follows the assumption that the process is solely that of providing language experience ; for every lesson in which the language is spoken, read or written must inevitably contribute to the extension of the pupil's acquaintance with the language. If this were the true character of the process the only qualification for the role of instructor would be an adequate knowledge of the language. Closer examination, however, proves that the efficient teaching of a foreign language, far from being a simple process, is probably the most difficult and complex of all subjects in the curriculum.[1]

[1] This view finds confirmation in the published reports of highly authoritative bodies, as the following excerpts show :

‘ No attempt should be made to obscure the fact that it is very difficult to learn and to teach languages, ancient and modern, in schools.’—*Modern Studies*, Being the Report of the Committee on the Position of Modern Languages in the Educational System of Great Britain, p. 105. H.M. Stationery Office, 1928.

‘ A sound preparation for his work makes more severe demands than in any other subject of secondary education.’—*A Summary of Reports*, Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages, p. 54. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1931.

‘ Modern Language teaching demands a specialist, because the technique of teaching a language, especially to beginners, is so difficult that none but a specialist can cope with it.’—*Memorandum on the Teaching of Modern Languages*, issued by the Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools, p. 49. University of London Press, 1929.

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For all subjects the initial considerations are *what* to teach and *how*. In the case of all other subjects there is no appreciable difficulty about the first, as the syllabus is usually clear and indisputable. Even for method there are guiding principles which meet with more or less general acceptance. Foreign-language teaching, however, has not yet attained the stage of universal agreement even as to *what* is to be taught, still less as to *how*.

This may be taken as an indication of the complex character of the subject, wherein content and method are curiously involved. What appears to be a single subject is really a group of associated yet distinct branches of study; for language is a generic term covering all or any of the following features : speech, reading, composition, grammar, literature, commercial, technical and scientific activities. Therefore courses must differ widely if reading or speech is made the sole or major purpose, and if the syllabus is extended to literature or commerce; the extent and choice of vocabulary too will depend on whether instruction is given on Translation or Direct Method lines; and presentation of grammar will vary considerably if taught formally or functionally.

Classification : Knowledge or Skills?

It is difficult even to qualify the general character of foreign-language teaching. All other school subjects may be broadly classified as either knowledge or skills. Thus History and Geography are undoubtedly knowledge subjects, whereas Mathematics and Drawing are skills. Strictly speaking none is purely one or the other. History is certainly more than the mere absorption of data, and Mathematics calls for the memorising of tables and

formulae ; but the predominant feature is clearly one element, with the other as incidental.

In which category is foreign-language learning to be included? The answer is of more than academic interest, as the respective point of view will determine the whole character of the course.

If it is thought of as predominantly a knowledge subject, efforts will be concentrated on giving the pupils as large a vocabulary as possible and supplying them with many grammatical data. The value of individual lessons will probably be assessed by the number of new words taught or the point of grammar elucidated.

On the other hand, if language is thought of as essentially a skill, or a series of skills, less attention will be paid to extent of vocabulary, and progress will be measured instead by the degree of fluency attained by the pupils.

The conflicting views possibly arise from different interpretations of the function of memorising in the learning process. This question has implications which warrant discussion.

THE FUNCTION OF MEMORISING

That learning by heart ought not to be lightly dismissed as a deplorable feature of obsolete methods may be gathered from the opinions of leading authorities.

Thus Handschin, a leading American specialist, writes :

' One of the best exercises of the will is memorising. We know there is a tendency in some quarters to make school tasks easy by omitting memory work. This, of course, is a reaction against over-emphasis on memory work in former periods. But, of course, there must be memory work, . . . although to overdo it is just as bad. . . . For instance oftentimes a course in

elementary language is so conducted as to acquire nothing but memory work.'—*Methods of Teaching Modern Languages*, p. 77. World Book Company, New York, 1923.

Harold Palmer, one of the most stimulating of modern authorities, asserts that ' the study of language is in its essence a series of acts of memorising ; whether we are concerned with isolated words, with word-groups, with meanings or with the phenomena of grammar, the fact remains that successful memorising is the basis of all progress.'—*The Oral Method of Teaching Languages*, p. 20. Heffer, 1923.

Elsewhere[1] he elaborates his interpretation of the teaching process by analysing language psychologically as comprising what he calls (*a*) Primary matter and (*b*) Secondary matter.

He explains primary matter as meaning all units to be memorised. As secondary matter he considers all language based on primary matter.

That primary matter is an appreciable part of language may be seen from the list of categories it comprises. Summed up they are

1. All vocabulary (simple, compound and derived).
2. (*a*) All word-groups used like single words, e.g. *of course, would rather, in spite of, had better.*
   (*b*) Verb phrases, e.g. *go out, come back, get up.*
   (*c*) The association of prepositions with nouns, adjectives and verbs, e.g. *on Sunday, made of, averse to* or *from.*
3. Idiomatic sentences.

[1] *The Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages*, pp. 103–119. Harrap, 1922.

4. A large number of regular sentences for use as models in substitution tables.[1]

It must be admitted in the light of Palmer's formidable list of categories that there is a considerable amount of language matter that must be committed to memory. It must be further conceded that all correct expression in language is virtually an act of recall, for all constructed sentences conform to conventional patterns. Indeed one of the chief causes of error may be (as Palmer points out) the attempt of pupils to construct secondary matter freely before they have absorbed and mastered sufficient primary matter. Memorising therefore is undoubtedly an essential part of the learning process.

USE OF LANGUAGE ESSENTIALLY A SKILL

Nevertheless it would be incorrect to interpret Palmer's assertion that ' the study of language is in its essence a series of acts of memorising ' as implying that the process is necessarily that of rote learning.

The essential characteristics of language in use are the

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[1] The two last categories comprise the two divisions of natural speech, which Henry Sweet (*Practical Study of Languages*, p. 71. J. M. Dent, 1899) called (*a*) General sentences and (*b*) Special sentences. By the former he means those sentences composed of units which can be varied so that one of them may serve as a pattern for numerous others, e.g. *Tom gave Mary an apple.* As ' special ' sentences he regards those word-groups which are units in themselves and cannot be decomposed into variable parts, e.g. *Good morning ! Thank you ! How do you do? I beg your pardon ! I don't think so. I couldn't help it.*

Otto Jespersen, in his *Philosophy of Grammar*, p. 18 (Allen & Unwin, 1924) deals with the same language phenomenon, but uses the terms ' formulas or formular units ' and ' free expressions ' respectively.

An appreciation of the pattern type of sentence is a characteristic feature of modern methods, and is elaborated in Palmer's *Oral Method of Teaching Languages.*

speed and facility with which the language is received and produced. To be effective there should be little conscious effort but rather the spontaneous use of familiar words and forms. Fluent speech and rapid reading are not simply the application of knowledge ; they imply the possession of specific habits ; they are in effect a series of unconscious acts of memory. The inculcation of correct language habits is therefore the teacher's chief concern. For this purpose extent of vocabulary and grammatical knowledge are not the most vital factors. Fluency is a quality attainable within any range of vocabulary and may be absent despite the knowledge of all the words and forms in the language.

It would be right therefore to conclude that foreign-language learning is essentially a skill, or a series of skills, calling for the assimilation of a considerable amount of language matter for reproduction and adaptation without conscious effort.

Although essentially a skill, the learning of a foreign language differs from other process subjects in one significant feature. The pupil beginning Arithmetic, for instance, sets out to acquire an entirely fresh accomplishment, but the one who seeks proficiency in the use of a secondary language is attempting to duplicate in another medium the skills he already possesses. Far from simplifying the process the effect of the original skills serves only to make the subject more difficult and involved.

II. FACTORS IN FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHING

' We have discovered in recent years a great deal about how we should teach the various subjects of instruction, but at the same time we are also beginning to find out that we shall have to know still more about how the child himself learns, and what things he should learn, if his subsequent development is to be as complete and healthy as possible. In other words, in consequence of the changes that are occurring, there has been a shift of emphasis in teaching from the subject to the child.'—
Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers[1]

IF differences of opinion may still prevail on the classification of foreign-language teaching, there is even greater scope for argument as to the relative importance of the many factors involved in the teaching process.

These factors may be arranged under the following heads :

(*a*) The subject to be taught.

(*b*) The pupils undergoing instruction.

(*c*) The instructor.

(*d*) External factors, e.g. school organisation.

Owing to the complexity of the problems involved it is possible to approach the subject from various angles, with consequent danger of obtaining a distorted view of the whole process. To gain a true perspective it is necessary, therefore, to examine all factors both in isolation and in relation to the others.

THE SUBJECT ANGLE

The subject to be taught comprises the following features : vocabulary, grammar and speech sounds.

[1] Board of Education : H.M. Stationery Office, London.

Recent research has shed fresh light on the main features of language. The modern conception of grammar differs fundamentally from the old; for speech sounds the science of Phonetics has been evolved; and recently a new study has been created—the science of Semantics, dealing with the signification of words as distinct from their form and function.

From time to time each of these features in turn has been made the focus of attention. Thus at one stage grammar dominated all systems; later, phonetics took the field and everything was subordinated to this aspect; latterly vocabulary selection seems to be the keynote of all new methods, culminating in the evolution of the ' extracted ' language of Basic English.

It would be impertinent to attempt to depreciate the importance of recent research, some of the fruits of which will be set forth in succeeding chapters. It must be pointed out, however, that the progress made in the spheres of phonetics, vocabulary and grammar has shed fresh light, however brilliant, chiefly on the *what* of language instruction. We are undoubtedly in a more advantageous position to-day for drawing up a syllabus of vocabulary and grammar and to deal with the mechanics of speech. Here we are on firm ground, for the phenomena of language lend themselves to scientific treatment, from which clear principles may be confidently established.

It would be a mistake, however, to assume that all the problems of foreign-language teaching can be solved in a correspondingly exact manner, or to ignore them by concentrating on the language factor. The *how* of language instruction is a much more subtle problem than the *what* —for an obvious reason. If the subject matter of the first

field of enquiry is language, that of the *how* is really the pupil, or rather the language in relation to the pupil and the other numerous factors.

Owing to the failure of agreement on the part of psychologists and the extreme variability of the factors involved, the whole sphere of teaching, including language instruction, must still be considered as the province of art rather than of science.

This is not meant to imply that it is devoid of principles or that its methods are necessarily erratic. It means essentially that the chief concern is with results. First the ends to be achieved are established and then the most efficient means of attaining them are sought empirically. In the course of experience certain general principles are evolved which are theoretically sound and demonstrable by experiment, but do not claim the infallibility of scientific laws.

THE PUPIL ANGLE

This comprises a group of factors each significant enough to weigh the scales towards success or failure. One has only to note the following list to appreciate that the acutest problems of foreign-language teaching in schools may be independent of subject matter, and that final results may not truly reflect the soundness or weakness of language methods.

Consider these factors :

(*a*) Size of class.
(*b*) Cultural standard.
(*c*) Composition of class.
(*d*) Attitude, incentive.
(*e*) Discipline.

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Size of Class. It is generally agreed that the ideal size of a foreign-language class for speech lessons is certainly under twenty,[1] yet the average teacher, in the elementary school at least, probably has to cope with double this number. In assessing results allowances ought to be made for abnormally large classes, and the question should be seriously debated whether it would not be more profitable to modify the aims so as to ensure at least partial success. Indication of such modification will be made in the next chapter.

General Class Standard. If the level of intelligence, the educational level and the mastery of the mother-tongue are low, the standard of achievement in the foreign language will presumably be correspondingly limited. It is admitted that language learning is not a rational process involving principles, like Mathematics, for instance, and that intensive mental activity (thinking about the subject) is not necessarily to be encouraged, but this need not imply that dull wits are an asset. At all events we have seen that in language learning there is a considerable amount of matter to be memorised, and success will greatly depend on the capacity of the pupils in this direction.

Composition of Classes. The Memorandum of the Assistant Masters' Association on the Teaching of Modern Languages[2] lists the following types of mentality among the pupils composing an average class :

(*a*) The born linguist who absorbs the foreign language by merely hearing it spoken or by reading it.

(*b*) The highly intelligent boy with imagination who

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[1] ' It is probable, however, that few can manage more than twenty to the best advantage.'—*Modern Studies,* p. 110.

[2] p. 69.

enjoys the intellectual and aesthetic sides of language.

(c) The average plodder of moderate attainments who has little intuition.

(d) One who seems to prefer rule-of-thumb methods and translation.

(e) The non-linguistic hopeless type.

Most teachers will readily recognise at least three of the types enumerated and appreciate the problem involved, which grows more acute with the progress of the course, particularly if the system of promotion ignores the claims of the foreign-language subject.

Discipline, Attitude, Incentive. Language learning is an exacting subject and children's powers of concentration and natural incentive are not usually high ; therefore the question of discipline may well prove the crucial test of the teacher's competency.

It cannot be denied that ' discipline depends largely ', as Handschin reminds us,[1] ' upon the teacher, his ways of thinking, of acquiring data, of reacting to stimuli, of deporting himself and of doing the work which must be done in the classroom.' But there may be conditions which aggravate the normal difficulties, such as the defective organisation of the school, a perverse or indifferent attitude to the subject on the part of the pupils or the staff.

Whatever the cause, satisfactory progress cannot be expected in the absence of the will-to-work on the part of the class. Attitude, incentive and discipline are closely connected and are normally the effects of the teacher's personality and activities. The true art of teaching is not

[1] *Methods of Teaching Modern Languages*, p. 85. World Book Co., New York, 1923.

the application of the 'best' system but the ability to stimulate pupils to worth-while activity. In this respect the experience of the veteran teacher is often less effective than the freshness and enthusiasm of the novice. The key to success in this as in all subjects is undoubtedly ' interest '.

THE TEACHING ANGLE

(a) THE TEACHER'S QUALIFICATIONS

The first qualification is obviously a sound knowledge of the language in theory and practice ; to this should be added an acquaintance with the geography, history, litera- ture and institutions of the English-speaking countries.[1]

The second vital qualifications are a good speaking and reading voice and a knowledge of voice production ac- quired through a practical course in phonetics. The importance of the teacher as model speaker and reader cannot be over-emphasised, as the oral language, as will be shown, is both a means and an end.

There are other qualifications not usually sufficiently stressed, such as good handwriting, the ability to sketch and also to sing. Above all there are always the considera- tions of general culture, a sympathetic attitude towards children and a genuine liking for the subject.

(b) APPLICATION OF SYSTEMS

One of the most significant features of foreign-language teaching is its subjection to systems. The language teacher

[1] In other than British Colonies it would be advisable for teachers of English to acquaint themselves with the differences between the English and American tongues. The standard works on the subject are now *The American Language,* by H. L. Mencken (Knopf, New York, 4th Edition, 1941), and *A Dictionary of Modern American Usage,* by H. W. Horwill (Oxford University Press, 1935).

of to-day is given far less latitude than his colleagues in the treatment of his subject. He is compelled by the inevitable text-book he adopts, or has imposed on him, to adhere to a system which maps out the course and pre-scribes the methods to be applied. In consequence there is a growing tendency to regard the subject of language teaching as a purely technical craft in which the skilful application of a particular system is the instructor's sole concern, and indulgence in general principles and theories quite superfluous and even reprehensible.

Owing to the extreme complexity of the subject the adoption of a carefully graduated course is imperative. This has perhaps led to the erroneous belief that the foreign-language instructor has ceased to be a teacher in the traditional sense. Originality and initiative seem to no longer expected of him. The method-writer has taken upon himself the major part of the work, thereby reducing the role of the teacher to that of a mere supervisor.[1] Here is surely the wrong shift of emphasis—from the teacher to the text-book.

To counter this deplorable trend one can do no better, perhaps, than quote the opinions of eminent authorities on both sides of the Atlantic. Consider the following written in 1899 by Henry Sweet, whose *Practical Study of Languages* is still a standard work of reference :

' In the present multiplicity of methods and text-books it is absolutely necessary for real and permanent progress that we

[1] ' Everything therefore depends on the book ; the teacher is a mere master of ceremonies '—Michael West : *Learning to Read a Foreign Language.* Longmans, 1926.
' The teacher's duty is only to supervise, to correct, and to test '—Michael West : *How to use the ' New Method Conversation Course '.* Longmans, 1936.

should come to some sort of agreement on general principles. Until this is attained—until everyone recognises that *there is no royal road*[1] to languages, and that no method can be a sound one which does not fulfil certain definite conditions—the public will continue to run after one new method after the other, only to return disappointed to the old routine.'

This opinion is echoed thirty years later in the comprehensive report of the Canadian Committee :[2]

' All this leads of course into *no royal roads*[1] for modern language teaching. Those who are familiar with the history of education and especially with the history of modern language teaching do not look for any such discoveries and are willing to leave the belief in miracles of this character to the wonder doctors of education and their uncritical audiences. Improvement in the teaching of the modern languages can come to the schools and colleges only through the simultaneous improvement of a number of factors which concern the organisation of classes, curriculum material and teacher training, and through the co-operation of administrators, psychologists and teachers, and the sympathetic backing of a purse-holding public.'

We find the same view re-echoed in *Modern Studies*, the official report on the position of Modern Languages in Great Britain, 1928.

' *There is no royal road*,[1] no rule of thumb, of art or science which can be indicated as leading to success in the teaching or study of Modern Languages.'

' The best method is that which best suits the teacher, assuming that he is a good teacher and well qualified.'

Although there may be no universally ' best ' method, there are undoubtedly good methods based on sound principles. The true test of a system or method,

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[1] Italics by the writer.   [2] *Summary of Reports*, p. 206.

however, is not the result alone, but the time and effort entailed, its interest value, and above all, its contribution to the broader, cultural aims of education.[1]

It is inevitable that a carefully planned system should be adopted and efficiently applied ; but this need not imply the equal desirability of completely subordinating the teacher to a single method and confining his training to practice. No one can apply a system intelligently who is not fully aware of its limitations ; and ignorance of the problems involved in a subject ought not to be condoned whatever the apparent results may be.

No rigid system can possibly cope with the multiplicity of mental and temperamental types of both pupils and teachers. Ultimate responsibility must rest with ' the man on the spot ' who can best adopt means to ends when he is completely aware of the ramifications of his subject and has before him clearly defined aims and purposes.

[1] ' Practical education is the only foundation on which idealistic achievements can be raised ; to neglect the practical aims of education is foolishness ; but to recognise no other is to degrade humanity.'— *Modern Studies*, p. 46.

III. AIMS AND PURPOSES

' Under fair teaching conditions the achievement of pupils reflects directly the emphasis which the teacher lays on the objectives he seeks. No worthwhile ability in the modern language develops as a bye-product.'—*American and Canadian Report.*

To what extent does the learning of one thing incidentally help another? This important question of ' transfer ' is still an open one. It is advisable therefore to adopt the conservative view that it is only ' special ' training of direct connection with the new subject that is sure. The formulation of specific aims and objectives for so complex a subject as language is thus imperative. To do so effectively we must first have a clear conception of the subject.

OBJECTIVE AND SUBJECTIVE SIDES OF LANGUAGE

In discussing language we are apt to ignore its subjective side ; we tend to conceive of it as a standardised and uniform system[1] which is the heritage of all natives. In practice there proves to be a wide gulf between the ' ideal ' or objective and the subjective sides of language.

The objective side is the complete language as employed for the communication of thoughts and emotions of a practical or cultural nature ; its full vocabulary is to be seen in general and specialist dictionaries ; its speech forms are innumerable, varying with the social class, education, environment, occupation, age, sex, and interests of its users.

[1] It is questionable whether ' Standard English ', a modern conception, is considered to be more than a guide and a reference, the arbiter of what is alone correct and admissible.

A common degree of objective knowledge, i.e. understanding, is expected of all mature natives, irrespective of all other considerations—for life affords unending experience, by means of books, periodicals, the wireless, the cinema, lectures or personal contacts, of the language used by others.

The subjective side, by which is meant the language as used and therefore controlled by the individual, is characterised by a remarkable lack of uniformity ; although basically the same for all members of a social group it varies considerably with each individual.[1] In our choice of vocabulary, idioms and metaphors we display a uniqueness of style which reflects our respective characters and idiosyncrasies. Our fluency cannot be tacitly assumed ; some people can readily find the apt word or phrase and will descant at length on many and varied topics ; others have difficulty in ' saying what they mean ', and may confine their conversational activities to brief or even laconic statements. What is commonly characteristic is that in speech we all draw on much more limited vocabulary than we are acquainted with.

If the distinction between the objective and subjective sides of language is to be observed where natives are concerned, it is not unreasonable to expect corresponding differences in the case of foreigners. Yet this fact is often lost sight of and a uniform standard of performance is usually demanded for speech and writing as for understanding.

[1] ' There are many people who speak French, but there is no French speaker competent to serve as a law and example to others. What we call French does not exist in the language spoken by any human being. . . . The best French is simply an ' idea '. . . .
. . . a language is therefore the ideal linguistic form imposed upon all the individuals of the same social group.'
Vendryes : *Language*, pp. 242–3. Kegan Paul, 1925.

Use of Language by Natives

A native uses his language in various ways. He apprehends what he hears or reads, and expresses his thoughts and emotions in speech and writing ; he possesses an extensive though variable vocabulary of words and phrases and is able to apply them more or less spontaneously to his normal needs. The educated native has extended his vocabulary for cultural purposes and has a mastery of the form and structure of the language and an acquaintance with classical and modern literary models. The specialist possesses an additional vocabulary of technical terms, and the business-man a stock of commercial clichés. All this knowledge has been acquired as the result not of heredity but of particular circumstances, the most significant being the time devoted to the process.

Language for the Foreigner

To the foreigner the language may mean all or only part of what it is to the native. This will depend upon circumstances, of which the chief are those of purpose, time and intelligence.

Although the various language features are not unconnected, it is possible to acquire control of one or several of them exclusively. Experience may attune the ear to the sounds of the spoken language while giving no exercise to the eye ; for even natives may be illiterate. Conversely we may acquire an extensive knowledge of the written form of a language without being able to carry on or follow the simplest conversation. Purpose may therefore determine the feature of the language to be studied.

The time element is another important feature. By

time is meant here both the length of the course and the frequency of the lessons. Certain features demand a longer course and more frequent lessons than others.

The intellectual standard and intelligence of the pupils should affect both content and aims. The inclusion of formal grammar with its wealth of abstract notions, for example, should depend on the mental capacity of the pupils.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL COURSE

For elementary schools the course will not normally extend to literature or commerce. If at least four periods a week are available, the main language features to be considered are the following :

A. Understanding what is heard.
B. Understanding what is read.
C. Expressing ideas in speech.
D. Expressing ideas in writing.

Understanding and expression are not to be taken as indicating everything that is heard, seen or thought but only in qualified forms.

Recalling the remarks on ' transfer ', each of these skills must be made a specific objective, if it is desired to ensure proficiency in it. The measure of success will depend directly on the attention given to each.

RECEPTIVE OR PRODUCTIVE ASPECTS

The four language features may be dealt with separately or in association. Thus A and C may be grouped together since they both relate to speech ; similarly, B and D, owing to their common employment of written symbols

However, there is a closer psychological affinity between A and B, and C and D, for the first denote reception of language in the form of spoken or written words, and the latter imply production of language in the form of speech and writing.

Alternative names for the respective processes are Passive and Active sides. It is more convenient to use these shorter and fuller-sounding terms although they are slightly misleading, for even in understanding the learner is far from passive; indeed, if he were truly passive no learning would be possible. It is only when we note the vast distinction between reception and production of language that by contrast the one appears to be an active process and the other almost passive.

ACTIVE AND PASSIVE PROFICIENCIES CONTRASTED

Active proficiency calls for :

(a) the use of correct vocabulary, i.e. the right word in the right place ;

(b) the spontaneous recall of words, implying a mastery of vocabulary ;

(c) grammatical accuracy (use of correct tenses, inflexions, word order) ;

(d) in speech, fluency and ability to reproduce correct sounds, pronunciation, intonation, rhythm and elliptical usage.

(e) in writing, the application of English orthography with all its implications.

Passive proficiency, on the other hand, calls only for :

(a) a ' recognition ' of vocabulary when presented in speech or writing ;

(*b*) an acquaintance with major grammatical forms ;

(*c*) the skill of assimilating rapidly the sense of large word-groups.

It is clear therefore that passive proficiency

(*a*) is far simpler to acquire,

(*b*) calls for considerably less expenditure of time and energy,

(*c*) is within the capacity of almost the weakest pupils,

(*d*) has a high ' surrender ' value, i.e. its practical value at any stage is appreciable.

It is essential to bear in mind the difference between the receptive and productive sides of language, for this distinction pervades the whole course. An appreciation of this aspect is one of the most characteristic features of modern methods and should be the starting-point of any discussion of aims and methods.

PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS

In drawing up a course for elementary schools the first practical considerations are these :

1. Should the course be confined to the ' passive ', i.e. to Reading?

2. If both sides are included, should the passive be considered as the major aim?

3. Should the receptive and productive sides be segregated or correlated, i.e., should they follow parallel courses using the same language matter and texts or proceed along independent lines?

4. If speech is included, should it precede or follow the Reading course?

ARGUMENTS FOR EXCLUDING THE ACTIVE

The main arguments in favour of eliminating speech and writing from the aims of English teaching in elementary schools are the following :

1. The possible standard of attainment in speech and written expression is low and does not warrant the attention it demands.
2. It is better to concentrate on a language feature which promises success ; this would be assured if all the available time were devoted to Reading.
3. Subsequent opportunities for practice in speech and writing are meagre and therefore any ability in these skills would tend to atrophy through lack of use.

THE CASE FOR INCLUDING THE ACTIVE

Granted that a pupil on completing an elementary school course is far from fluent in the foreign language, he has at least covered several stages of his training and is in an advantageous position for achieving the ultimate purpose should opportunity, necessity or inclination create the urge. All schooling is of a similar nature, its purpose being to introduce pupils to practical and cultural subjects, not to perfect them in their application.[1] With the right methods and satisfactory conditions the possible standard of attainment is sufficiently high to justify the inclusion of speech and writing as major aims.

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[1] ' It is probable that too much is expected at sixteen ; many, from a few examples, leap to a conclusion that all teaching of languages at school is useless. The truth, of course, is that a sound foundation can be laid in school, but further study and training are imperatively necessary.'—*Modern Studies*, p. 20.

With English rapidly becoming an almost universal medium of intercourse, every individual is a potential user of the language, irrespective of his eventual stay in an English-speaking country. Even if opportunities for direct conversation are absent there need be no lack of aural practice in these days of the wireless and the ' talkies '. For most people the economic urge to know and use the language is increasingly potent, and the fact that so many crowd the evening classes for English studies proves the obligation of the schools to try to deal effectively with the active sides of the language.

The ' time ' argument is only valid where the number of periods per week is below four (for children), and the classes are excessively large.

READING AS THE CHIEF AIM

If speech and writing are included among the aims, the next question to be discussed is whether they should be considered as subsidiary to Reading or of an equal rank.

The arguments in favour of making Reading the principal aim[1] are these :

1. Once the pupil has been trained to read correctly he is virtually independent of the teacher and may practise his skill unaided.

2. The opportunities for practice are unlimited, as they are afforded by books and periodicals and do not call even for companionship.

3. It has a high cultural value by giving access to literature—specialist and cultural works generally.

4. It promises success even for the weakest pupils.

[1] As adduced from *Learning to Read a Foreign Language*, by Michael West.

5. It allows for the maximum participation of all the
   pupils and not the gifted, forward ones alone.

There is no need to adduce further valid arguments.
The case is surely well established that Reading ought to
be the first aim.

However, one cannot equally concede that Reading calls
for the teacher's main attention. On the contrary, because
the process is comparatively simple, because the average
pupil can acquire the skill of rapid reading fairly early in
the course, this feature should make less claim on the
teacher's time and efforts. At a stage when the develop-
ment of the reading skill becomes a simple matter of
routine, the Active sides present fresh problems and
demand increasing attention. The earlier statement that
Reading ought to be the first major aim was intended to
imply only that the achievements ought to be assessed
first on the Passive side. This should always constitute
the minimum requirement and as such be deemed the
first aim.

ARGUMENTS FOR SEPARATE COURSES

Dr. Michael West appears to be the chief advocate of
separate courses for both language sides, and as he has
exerted considerable influence on modern methods, his
opinions call for careful consideration.

He has rightly stressed the great gulf between the
receptive and productive sides.[1] For reading the main
concern is with vocabulary. This, however, has not to be
mastered, that is, made available for spontaneous recall, but
simply to be ' recognised ' when presented to the reader.

[1] *Learning to Read a Foreign Language* and *Learning to Speak a
Foreign Language.*

There is therefore much less strain on the memory ; in consequence the passive vocabulary soon outdistances the active and proceeds at an ever-increasing rate. If the passive training precedes the active, the latter may benefit considerably by the prior process, for there will be a reservoir of passive vocabulary to draw from, the process becoming that of converting a passive vocabulary into an active.

The further arguments of Dr. West appear to be based on considerations of expediency due to conditions in Bengal, where his System saw its inception. In that Indian province these conditions obtain : Classes are large in the first two years but thin out considerably later, thus making it more favourable to begin the active with comparatively small numbers. Further, owing to a dearth of trained teachers, efficient instructors are available only for the upper classes.

These last considerations are of course invalid in countries where classes remain constant throughout the course and where the same teachers are available for the whole period.

THE CASE FOR CORRELATED COURSES

The most significant point is that all four processes deal with the same fundamental language matter, namely, basic vocabulary and general sentence forms. There are about a thousand words which must be thoroughly mastered and not merely ' recognised '. The best way to do this is possibly through the ' multiple sense appeal '— through the eye and ear, through the vocal organs in speech and by the hand in writing. As the active does not require an extensive vocabulary, separation of the two sides need not occur until a fairly advanced stage.

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It is true that the passive is a necessary preliminary to the active, but this need not imply that Reading must precede speech. Indeed, the appropriate passive introduction to speech is not reading but *the understanding of speech.*

Speech in its turn is a good introduction to Reading. It should not be overlooked that speech may be both an end and a means. Even were reading the only aim, speech would still have its place as a valuable means, for it is through speech that life is breathed into the inert symbols of the printed page. The belief is strongly held that reading of whatever character is a form of inaudible speech, and therefore the best way to train pupils in rapid reading is by means of rapid reading aloud, preferably by a good model reader. This will be more fully discussed in the appropriate chapter.

If speech and writing are included among the major aims they need the maximum scope. To reduce the available time by half or even a third would be erroneous, for it is fallacious to assume that time devoted to the active must necessarily be at the expense of reading, that given all the hours of the course the passive knowledge could be proportionately extended. This might be the case in an extremely short course and in the early stages of a normal course, but is not so eventually. A class trained efficiently to express itself in speech in addition to its reading practice will, by the end of the course, read as freely as, or even more freely than, a corresponding class which has devoted the whole time to purely passive reading, probably owing to the interest value of speech as a means.

There is the final argument that reading has less call on

class time, as it can well be pursued at home whereas the classroom is the only place for acquiring speech practice and testing skill in writing.

WRITING AS THE CHIEF AIM[1]

A further aspect to be considered is the possible domination of the writing skill owing to its value as a means. The easiest way to test collectively is by means of written questions, and it has therefore prevailed as the almost universal form of examinations. For this reason and perhaps too because it calls for a high degree of mental discipline, some schools give preference to writing over speech. A good case might be set up for writing as against speech in the secondary schools, but not in the elementary schools, and in neither against reading. At all events it is equally a part of the active side and should be started early in the course.

CONCLUSIONS

All four skills though independent are related and may be co-active. They function fundamentally with the same matter, varying only in degree. The passive vocabulary will inevitably exceed in range that of the active, but this need not preclude the application of speech to reading matter. A pupil may well acquire speech habits from a discussion of his reading, as in the early stages he reads what he has been discussing orally. Written composition, in turn, may advantageously follow up both reading and speech and serve as the final step in consolidating the memorising of words and phrases.

Each process does indeed call for a scheme of its own,

[1] This question is discussed more fully in the chapter on Writing.

but all the schemes should be correlated, though only in the early stages need they be synchronised. If all four processes are included they must be given the maximum practice. As reading, being rightly more of a learning than a teaching process, is less dependent on class conditions, it has therefore less need to monopolise class time. When speech is included as a major aim it can serve both as an end and a valuable means, and therefore it should precede reading in the early stages.

APPROPRIATE TEXT-BOOKS

A final word must be said about the advisability of using separate text-books for active and passive purposes. Both aims cannot be adequately pursued with the same progressive matter. For the passive the concern is mainly with vocabulary, and because the words have not to be mastered the pace can be rapid ; for the active the concern is more with language forms and the mastery of a limited vocabulary. For this purpose specially devised lessons with model patterns and exercises are needed. A previous Reader is unsuitable ; if it is wrong to harness the passive to the active because of its immensely greater rate of progression, it ought to be equally wrong to make the active dog the steps of the passive in pursuit of a different aim. In brief, each skill calls for a scheme of its own and therefore for specially designed text-books. To apply speech to all reading matter and to test understanding of reading with a few written questions does not do justice to the claims of either speech or writing. Only distinct progressive courses with appropriate text-books will suffice.

IV. WORDS

'In that case,' said the Dodo solemnly, rising to its feet, 'I move that the meeting adjourn, for the immediate adoption of more energetic measures—— '

'Speak English !' said the Eaglet. 'I don't know the meaning of those long words, and, what's more, I don't believe you do either ! '

Alice's Adventures in Wonderland.

The Problem of Vocabulary

To appreciate the problem of vocabulary one has only to consult any large standard dictionary, where the number of words listed often exceeds a hundred thousand, and may extend even to a quarter of a million in English, which is exceptionally hospitable to foreign importations. It is to be assumed that no individual is master of the complete vocabulary, because a comprehensive dictionary is a sort of encyclopedia furnishing information on all possible subjects of national or general interest.

Obviously a considerable part of the words listed in the large dictionaries is superfluous to the normal requirements of the average Englishman. In his daily intercourse and general reading he does not need those specialised lists of words appertaining to specific occupations and pursuits and branches of scientific, technical and commercial knowledge. If these were eliminated, the dictionary of common usage would assume more modest proportions, comprising between twenty and thirty thousand units.[1]

To acquire a knowledge, not necessarily a mastery, of a vocabulary of even these dimensions, takes the normal educated Englishman at least sixteen years of intensive

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[1] Such as Dr. West's *New Method Dictionary* (Longmans).

language experience. It is clear, therefore, that for any limited course, particularly that of an elementary school, the range of vocabulary must be greatly curtailed.

How should this be done? If all words had equal validity it could be carried out indiscriminately, but one has only to take a haphazard list like *was*, *yonder*, *and*, *hitherto*, *commence*, *begin*, *does*, *operates*, *implication*, *duster*, *now*, *then*, to appreciate that selection is essential and that in any limited list inclusion implies exclusion.

To-day we are happily much enlightened on the question of word-values as the outcome of studies conducted by Thorndyke and Horn in the United States, Palmer in Japan, West in India, Faucett and Maki in China, and Richards and Ogden in England. The most profound and interesting study is *The Meaning of Meaning* by Richards and Ogden, but for practical purposes the indispensable teachers' handbook is the *Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection*,[1] the joint work of leading British and American philologists.

ACTIVE AND PASSIVE CONSIDERATIONS

The first consideration in regard to vocabulary selection ought to be the distinction between active and passive needs, i.e. between the receptive and productive sides of language. In reading or listening we proceed from words to thoughts; in speech or writing the reverse process obtains. When we express ourselves in language we choose our own words, but when we listen or read we are obliged to follow the vocabulary used by others.

On the other hand, we have to be masters of the vocabulary we employ, whereas we need only 'recognise' the

[1] King & Son, London, 1936.

word or guess the meaning of the words that confront us in speech or writing.

PASSIVE NEEDS

The process of extending our acquaintance with words is an increasingly useful one, as it leads to appreciation of the finer points of language and literature. It would be a mistake to assume that there is a maximum capacity for learning words irrespective of the time factor. Limitation of vocabulary is imposed on students by the exigencies of the course ; therefore all selected receptive vocabulary is looked upon by most reformers merely as a ' foundation ' vocabulary to be augmented with time and increased language experience.

ACTIVE NEEDS

With regard to vocabulary for productive purposes, however, a good case might be made out for concentration on a strictly limited number of words, and even for the discouragement of extensive augmentation. In expression, as already indicated, the transition is from thoughts to words. While understanding of what is heard or read is uniform, there are innumerable verbal ways of expressing ideas or describing incidents. Consider the following versions of the same sequence of facts :

A. Last night a thief managed to get into my house while I was asleep, but he ran off without stealing anything when one of the servants woke up and called out.

B. In the course of last night a marauder contrived to penetrate into my abode while I was indulging in my customary nocturnal devotion to Morpheus ; he decamped, however, without purloining any of my valuables on being disturbed in

his nefarious activities by the ejaculations of one of the domestic menials who became aware of his unauthorised presence at such an untimely hour.

It has been fully demonstrated[1] that all fundamental notions may be rendered in simple language employing a small number of carefully selected words. A speaker or writer will use other words, not necessarily for greater precision but for stylistic purposes. This may be satisfactory when the user is a master of his vocabulary and language, but questionable in the case of the foreigner, who is liable to err through the very richness of his vocabulary. His usually defective language ear will lead him to confuse elevated or literary with common colloquial usage ; at all events it is safer for the foreigner to keep close to the core of the language which is contained in those short, racy colloquial words and locutions of Anglo-Saxon origin which characterise the common speech.[2]

' ISLAND ' VOCABULARIES

When strictly limited lists are used for productive and receptive purposes they form what may be termed an ' island ' vocabulary. An example of such language limitation is ' Basic English '. It is claimed by its compilers that with a working vocabulary of 850 units, augmented only by name words for technical subjects, any notion may be adequately expressed. No one will now dispute the

[1] In the books of ' Basic English ' and similar literature employing selected vocabularies.

[2] ' It need hardly be said that shortness is a merit in words, . . . it is a general truth that the short words are not only handier to use, but more powerful in effect : extra syllables reduce, not increase, vigour. This is particularly so in English, where the native words are short, and the long words are foreign.'—*Modern English Usage* by H. W. Fowler. Oxford University Press.

remarkable possibilities of a limited carefully selected vocabulary as a vehicle of expression, but one may well question other features of the System, such as the merging of verb forms in substantive constructions and the elimination of all the 'free expressions' which flavour the common speech.

Anyone trained exclusively on 'Basic English' lines might find it extremely difficult to change his acquired stylistic habits, and not having the command of the language possessed by those who have 'written down' to accomplish the 'Basic' readers, may defeat the very purpose of the System by constructing cumbersome sentences prodigal in words and obscure in meaning.

CRITERIA OF WORD SELECTION

(a) WORD FREQUENCY

Owing to the difficulty or even impossibility of ascertaining objectively the words most frequently used in normal intercourse by all classes or even by individuals,[1] this criterion of selection can be applied only to the written language. For the purpose a vast and comprehensive literature is subjected to verbal analysis and the number of recurrences of individual words is registered. This, with modifications, indicates the frequency value of each word.

It should be noted that frequency counts have only relative value, as they depend on the range of written matter subjected to word analysis ; if extended to newspapers, classical and modern literature, they will include

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[1] ' No one knows the extent of his own vocabulary and there is no way of establishing it.'—Vendryes : *Language*, p. 18.

in any limited list a large number of synonyms, stylistic and ' content ' words with considerably higher frequency values than others of unique semantic value. In many cases ' frequency ' indicates the popularity of a word rather than its validity. Consider a few surprising results of an unquestionably reliable piece of research.[1]

 500 word list : receive, remain, destroy, pretty, state, bear, almost.

1,000 word list : allow, command, demand, grant, clothe, within, entire.

1,500 word list : afterwards, inside, paid, forty, sorry ; behold, cast, ere, wit, chamber, trim, lumber, title.

2,000 word list : ate, opposite, eleven, really ; unto, whence, elate, peer.

2,500 word list : somebody, position, ordinary, nearly ; wee, fret, wreath, hither, canst, doth, summon, monument.

3,000 word list : altogether, someone, fourteen, eighty, somewhere, yours, dirty, grey ; deem, muse, throng, shun, yea, spake, thereof.

3,500 word list : anywhere, everyone, eldest, clever, remind ; rill, attire, befall, behalf, chime, pomp, abode.

4,500 word list : hers, theirs, certainly, impatient ; tongs, tarry, withal, warble, spouse, strand.

5,000 word list : dislike, unkind, player, yearly, interesting ; methinks, apparel, edifice, forbear, spurn, zealous.

It should be clear from the examples given that the

[1] *A Teacher's Word Book of 20,000 Words* : Thorndyke. Teachers' College, Columbia University (for Juveniles). 1931.

principle of frequency must be modified in selecting a vocabulary for foreign-language teaching.

(b) WORD VALIDITY

The *Interim Report* has compiled a general-service foundation list, based on the following principles :

A. Word Frequency.
B. Structural Value.[1]
C. Universality in respect of geographical area.
D. Range of applicability to varieties of subject or subject range.
E. Value for purposes of definition of the meaning of other words.
F. Value for word-building (prefixes and suffixes).
G. Stylistic function of a word.

The usefulness of the *Report* to teachers and text-book compilers would be enhanced if the general-service list were arranged numerically on the principle of absolute validity. With standard lists ranging from 200 to 5,000 uniformity of practice would be possible, resulting in the greater efficiency of methods, the production of standard texts, and greater freedom in the choice of text-books employing the standard vocabularies. A further improvement might be the issue of separate lists for receptive and productive purposes, the former including synonyms of high frequency value, the latter limited to words of unique semantic value.

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[1] 'Structural' words, unlike 'content' words, are those we speak *with* and not *about*. Structural words generally have high validity, as they help to build up sentences irrespective of the subject, e.g. *was, shall, with, before, and, which, me, any, all, half, together.* The *Report* also recognises a class of semi-structural words, e.g. *break, part, fill, speak.*

(c) Maximum and Minimum Counts

As there are varying principles for word counting, the number alone is not necessarily a true indication of the range of a particular vocabulary. The fundamental difficulty is to decide what actually is ' a word ' for the purpose of a simplified list. Should the unit be the symbol treated objectively or the notion it represents from the learning angle? Should the criterion be graphic continuity, i.e. the way it appears on the printed page? If so, *yesterday*, *postman*, *well*, *certainly*, *prepare*, *yield* would be counted as single words, while their corresponding locutions *last night*, *post office*, *all right*, *of course*, *get ready*, *give in* ought to be considered as two word units.

If the component parts of a locution have already appeared as single words, the locution may not be listed at all as an additional unit although the learner would have to master them in the same way as fresh words, e.g. *find out* (discover), *do up* (tie up), *put out* (extinguish) *go on* (continue), *leave out* (omit). Some locutions may be inferred from a knowledge of the words composing them, but there are hundreds that cannot and must be learnt afresh.

From the learner's point of view, when a symbol has more than one semantic value, it is as many units as its connotations. For instance, *spring* is at least three learning units when it is applied respectively to a season, the mechanism of a watch and the act of jumping. The words *watch*, *just*, *order*, *air*, *stick*, *even*, *like*, *kind* are further ready examples. The fact that various notions have identical verbal forms, far from simplifying the learning process, may occasion additional difficulty. To

consider the symbol only and to ignore its full application is recognised as undue ' stretching ' of vocabulary.

A further difficulty in computing vocabulary is the counting as additional units of all words derived from a caption or head-word, e.g. *act, acted, acting, actor, actress, active, actively, activity, action, actionable, enact, re-enact.* While they are undoubtedly twelve distinct words they are certainly not so many learning units.

It will thus be seen that opinions may differ as to what constitutes a word for the purpose of compiling a limited vocabulary, and that there is room for minimum[1] or maximum counts, and even for relative counts according to the stage of the course.

PRESENTATION OF VOCABULARY

Selection of vocabulary, however important, is not the teacher's chief concern. It is only the *what* of teaching and is prescribed for him by the text-book he uses. The personal question for the teacher is *how* to get his pupils to assimilate this basic vocabulary ; in other words, his own concern is with presentation rather than selection.

For both receptive and productive purposes certain conditions are essential. The old method of presenting lists of unrelated words for rote learning has been rejected as excessively tedious, wasteful and generally ineffective. The alternative method is that of association, of which the following are the main principles :[2]

[1] This accounts for the fact that the 850 words which comprise the complete vocabulary of ' Basic English ' are computed by others to be actually from 3–5,000 units, if stretching is avoided and locutions listed as additional units.

[2] Adopted in part from *The Psychology of Learning* by E. Neumann.

1. Words should be presented in contexts and not in isolation.
2. The learner should be made conscious of them. It is not sufficient for him merely to hear the word or to come across it in the course of his reading ; his attention must be directed to it and be allowed to dwell on it for an appreciable time.
3. The word should recur a number of times.
4. An important factor is the intensity of the original impression, for which interest is a fundamental condition ; hence the importance of context and the story or situation in which words are encountered.
5. Rhythm is an aid to memory ; hence the value of regular sequences. (*First we do this, then we do that*, etc.)
6. Impressions are stronger when they are made on more than one sense organ, particularly as people vary in their mnemonic stimuli. Thus words are more likely to be remembered by all pupils if they are both seen and heard, and if the learners have repeated them aloud and written them down.
7. Although both passive and active deal with the same basic vocabulary, certain words are best treated actively and in association with other words of a like kind. Thus *some, any, none* and their compounds are best dealt with together ; similarly the *self* compounds, *much* and *many, little* and *a little*, and the commonest prepositions and conjunctions. This means that the active ought to follow a vocabulary scheme of its own without considering the prior acquaintance with the words passively.
8. It is good to establish a memory bond between two

words, one of which is already familiar, e.g. *lock and key*, *bread and butter*, *horse and cart*, *man and woman*, but care should be taken not to present them originally together, as this may make it difficult for the learner to distinguish between them when he recalls them in association.

9. Another useful form of association is that of antonyms, e.g. *ask—answer*, *begin—end*, *remember—forget*, *before—after*, *above—below*, *inside—outside*, *black—white*, *full—empty*.

10. With certain words an association may be best established with the word in the native language.[1]

11. After the initial treatment of vocabulary in contexts it is advisable to concentrate on the associative background which will conjure up the words without effort. Herein lies one of the purposes of retelling a story or revising a situation.

WORD-CONSCIOUSNESS.

An important part of the training of a foreign-language teacher should be devoted to making him word-conscious. This means that (1) he should be qualified to appraise the validity of words (content, structural, frequency, universality, stylistic, synonymous, redundant, practical value); (2) he should be master of the limited vocabulary for each stage; (3) be qualified to impress vocabulary on his pupils by means of appropriate devices, in accordance with the principles of association.

To assist the teacher to appreciate more fully the character and range of vocabulary, the following exercises are appended to this chapter. A further series of exercises

[1] This will be discussed in a subsequent chapter.

dealing with the presentation of vocabulary is appended
to the chapter on ' Translation and Direct Method '.

EXERCISES[1]

1. Arrange the following in two lists comprising structural
and content words separately :

these	dog	time	July	themselves
hope	although	shirt	sea	afterwards
noise	anywhere	better	never	green
should	evil	angry	nation	few
rather	west	good	pencil	sun
doing	pupil	blind	been	hero
happen	such	according	language	indeed

2. Twenty-five words in the following list have been ex-
cluded from an authoritative basic list.[2] Which are they?

tale	heart	behave	weather	mayor	flock
seek	interesting	handsome	value	ashamed	doctor
dwell	commence	abroad	foreign	lad	describe
judge	lane	fact	brook	excuse	peasant
million	certain	guess	trouble	goal	draw
luggage	dangerous	drama	succeed	echo	whereas
protect	busy	bid	yonder	suffer	probable
shadow	journey	nowadays	grant	orchard	satisfy
prevent	feminine	baggage	educate	refuse	science
duke	condition	grapes	swift	divide	allow

3. Arrange the following list according to your impression
of their frequency value. Each has been selected from a
different range of 500 or 1,000 words.[3]

1. sender   3. enjoyable   5. classroom   7. drinker
2. motherhood   4. weren't   6. irrelevant   8. fortieth

[1] Based on the conclusions and data of the *Interim Report*.
[2] The *Interim Report*.
[3] As given in Thorndyke's *Teacher's Word Book of 20,000 Words*.

9. mainly   13. steadily   17. origin   21. slumber
10. seemingly 14. downstairs 18. drank   22. complain
11. phase   15. nowhere 19. contend 23. gay
12. regarding 16. announce 20. heed   24. therefore
                                            25. roll

4. Write out the commonest derivative forms of the following head-words :

agree, joy, seven, please, obey, satisfy, sense, live, real, like.

5. Give the various semantic values of the following in order of importance :

still	just	poor	air
drop	kind	order	stick
fair	like	too	one
about	over	even	how

6. Give collocations (phrases) formed by each of the following verbs, with a corresponding single verb, if any :

do, make, have, get, go, come, put, look, give, take, break.

7. Find a simple synonym for each of the following :

obtain	purchase	sentiment	naught	direct (*adj.*)
reply	imitate	faith	ancient	expensive
permit	receive	peasant	suitable	obvious
pardon	implore	author	swift	concerning
remain	terminate	battle	distant	frequently
commence	connect	centre	distress	ere
bid	explode	rage	grateful	previously

8. Give the correct antonyms for the following :

big	straight	easy	warm	clever	above
large	different	hard	open	sometimes	sharp
clever	tight	glad	must	into	lower (*v*)
glad	sweet	interesting	both	behind	stop (*v*)

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9. Find corresponding phrases for the following :

return	extract	describe	improve	ripe
approach	omit	depart	gather	alone
consider	revise	dictate	seek	handsome
demand	continue	observe	mock	marvellous
discover	avoid	inquire	arrive	enormous
dismiss	discuss	extinguish	flee	butcher

10. Find affinities for the following :

soap	south	because	sew	snow
queen	soul	toes	ring	look
daughter	cart	leaf	autumn	throw
aunt	fork	grass	stamp	those
shell	woman	right	sometimes	husband

V. GRAMMAR

'The laws of language are sure and valid, but they are revealed in speech and writing as the laws of nature are revealed in living-beings in a delicate harmony of balanced forces and blended qualities. The elements can be recognised, but the harmony itself defies ultimate analysis.'—*Modern Studies*.

WHAT distinguishes one language from another? The criterion that first suggests itself is vocabulary ; a second choice would be sounds ; but further reflection might lead to the view that words are but the physical structure of language and that its soul is to be sought in the peculiar manner in which its words are modified to imply function and are combined to express thoughts—in short, its grammar.

Unfortunately the term has acquired a doubtful reputation as a school subject. It has been subjected to adverse criticism on account of its use of an ambiguous terminology, abstract definitions and arbitrary rules. To many it merely conjures up memories of acute mental strain expended in cramming data in anticipation of contingencies that might never arise or be identified when they did. At best it is conceded to be of purely academic interest when applied to English, which having shed most of its inflexions is thought to be a comparatively simple language. In consequence there appears to be a tendency in the teaching of English to foreigners to ignore the possible claims of grammar by concentrating on vocabulary.

Grammar teaching is a highly controversial subject on account of its many features, each of which may be the dominant one in the speaker's mind.

The main features are :

> Accidence and Syntax.[1]
> Parsing and Analysis.[2]
> Formal and Functional Treatment.[3]
> Deductive and Inductive Teaching.[4]

Apart from the foregoing divisions and aspects of grammar and grammar teaching, we must take into consideration the distinction between the modern and the old conception of grammar.

THE OLD CONCEPTION

1. Living languages were formerly treated as though they were classical languages. The earlier English grammars[5] were based on Latin, and corresponding forms were sought for the various Latin categories. Thus English nouns were saddled with six cases although only

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[1] Accidence—The part dealing mainly with the changes in the word to denote function, i.e. inflexion, e.g. *box—boxes, write—writes.*

Syntax—The part dealing with the construction of the sentence and the arrangement of its words.

[2] Parsing—The formal treatment of every word in the sentence, stating to what part of speech it belongs and giving further particulars, thus, for nouns : *class, number, gender, case, person* and *function* ; for verbs : *weak* or *strong, transitive* or *intransitive, voice, mood, tense, number, person, subject, object* or *complement.*

Analysis—The formal treatment of sentences, i.e. breaking them into their component parts (*clauses, phrases, subject, predicate, object, complement, extension, subordination, qualification*).

[3] Formal Grammar—Study of the grammatical forms and relations as a system using technical terms.

Functional Grammar—Dealing with practical points by concentrating on examples.

[4] Deductive—Starting with the abstract rule and then presenting examples.

Inductive—Presenting examples and then inferring the rule from them.

[5] e.g. Ben Jonson's, Lindley Murray's, Cobbett's.

the *Genitive* (Possessive) denotes function by a special form. Grammatical terminology showed the same influence, e.g. *conjunction, interjection, perfect, imperative, subjunctive, transitive.*

2. It attempted to reduce the complex forms of a natural language to a complete system of simple logical categories, governed by definitions and rules. Thus all words were compressed into rigid parts of speech implying water-tight compartments.

3. The unit of language was considered to be the word (as a dictionary unit) and the main purpose of grammar was to explain the function of each word.

4. The literary viewpoint dominated; only literary examples were used to illustrate rules.

5. It applied deductive methods of instruction, considering the study of abstractions as the highest form of mental discipline.

THE NEW CONCEPTION

The new conception of Grammar[1] may be summed up as follows :   ,

1. The foundation of a living language is the spoken, not the written form.

2. A living language, as the attribute implies, is not static but in a state of flux and change.

3. English has followed individual lines of development and must be considered independently of classical trends.

4. The purpose of grammar is to follow language, not prescribe it. It merely observes usage and records it ; convention, not rule, is the arbiter of what is correct in the

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[1] As inferred from the works of Sweet, Jespersen, Wyld, Ballard, Grattan and Gurrey.

colloquial language, e.g. *It's me. Who do you want? Neither were seen again. This is the book I was speaking about.*

5. The true unit of language is not the word in isolation but the word-group as used in the sentence (single word, phrase, clause or simple sentence).

6. English having shed most of its inflexions, function and word-order are more important than form.

7. ' Special ' sentences (idioms) are best dealt with as isolated units and ought not to be subjected to formal treatment.[1]

8. It applies inductive methods, considering the example more important than the rule, for future reference.

Grammar for Natives and Foreigners

Is the question of grammar-learning the same for natives and foreigners? There is at least this important distinction to be noted.

The native speaker becomes acquainted with the common forms of the language naturally and more or less unconsciously; he acquires proficiency in the use of the language without special study. For him a knowledge of grammar is useful as a check on error and for complete mastery.

For the foreigner, however, a consideration of grammar

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[1] ' With those that can be brought under general statements or rules, the question still remains to be answered for each particular fact of language, is it worth while referring it to a rule, or is it better to learn it simply as an isolated fact?

The usefulness of a rule depends on (1) its extent—that is, the number of examples included under it, (2) its efficiency—that is, the number of exceptions it has to admit, and (3) its definiteness, clearness and simplicity—that is, the ease with which it is learnt and applied.'—
Henry Sweet : *Practical Study of Languages*, p. 93.

is part of the process of acquiring a practical use of the language.

What part should the study of grammar play in this process? On this question there appear to be two extreme schools of opinion, which may, for reference, be denoted respectively as

(1) The ' Grammar ' School, which would make the study of grammar the dominant factor, and

(2) The ' Natural ' or ' Reform ' School, which would exclude all conscious consideration of grammar from the course.

The respective points of view might be set out in the form of argument and counter-argument, as follows:

Natural School

1. A living language is overwhelmingly idiomatic and cannot be reduced to a series of simple logical categories, governed by principles and rules.

2. Fluency depends on habit and does not permit of thinking about grammatical forms, i.e. relating theory to practice.

Grammar School

1. Besides ' special ' sentences there is considerable language matter that can be reduced to set patterns. A mastery of these forms leads to economy of time and effort, particularly in the early stages.

2. No one can be master of any skill unless he understands its principles. Fluency without accuracy is undesirable, and accuracy comes through mastery of detail. The habit of analysis trains one in the correct use of words and forms.

Natural School	*Grammar School*
3. The native speaker relies mainly on his language ear, and the foreigner must likewise cultivate a natural linguistic sense.	3. A language ear is not a reliable guide even for the native ; for the foreigner the entire language is unnatural, and his worst guide is his natural language ear ; hence the need of grammar.
4. Grammar should not be treated as a subject in itself ; it is an integral part of language.[1]	4. You cannot ignore grammar when teaching foreigners. If the teacher does not consciously deal with grammatical analogies, the pupil simply makes his own observations, and constructs a grammar of his own.

There are three further arguments for which it would be difficult to find valid counter-arguments :

   1. Children and most adults cannot deal satisfactorily with abstractions. They need concrete examples.[2]

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[1] cf. quotation at head of chapter.

[2] ' That grammatical propositions are abstractions, which are often difficult even for experts to understand, and which must be therefore far beyond the horizon of our pupils, we see from the way in which most philologists, on coming across a rule which is the least bit involved, immediately have to resort to the examples to see what the point is ; we also see from the difficulty which grammarians often find in expressing their rules in such a way as to be really clear. Therefore there is even among persons who have to any extent studied languages theoretically . . . a great tendency to avoid as much as possible the traditional, grammatical, theoretical method when they want to take up a new language. ... It is true that one really cannot begin to learn the grammar of a language until one knows the language itself.'—Jespersen : *How to Teach a Foreign Language.* Allen & Unwin, 1923.

2. Formal grammar calls for the application of a highly abstract and superfluous terminology.

3. A mastery of grammatical principles is admittedly a mental discipline and a cultural necessity, but it is best taught fundamentally in the mother-tongue.

It is clear that the respective opinions show a difference of outlook on the whole question. One favours the utilitarian side and the other the cultural side; one is influenced more by the modern conception of grammar; the other is still trammelled by the old interpretation.

Nevertheless, all the arguments of both schools are valid and should be borne in mind. Whichever viewpoint we adopt, the counter-arguments ought to be considered as a check on extreme tendencies.

For the elementary stages one might well adopt the opinion of D. Starch: [1]

' Incidentally the implication may also be pointed out that knowledge of grammar has very little effect upon correct usage. The large increases in grammatical knowledge are accompanied by very small increases in correct usage. Correct usage is primarily a matter of establishing correct habits of speech, and grammatical knowledge is useful only as far as it helps to establish such habits. Apparently imitation and repetition of correct expression are far more efficacious in forming correct habits than grammatical knowledge. The recent tendency to reduce the time devoted to formal grammar and to postpone the study of it to later years is in accord with these findings.'

For the secondary schools, however, the following opinions call for consideration :

' The tendency among reformers now is to revolt against

[1] As quoted by Handschin from *School Review*, 23 : 697–703, 1915.

rules and lay stress on such facts as that " we learn to speak by pattern rather than rule " (Paul, 89) and that " we learn living languages more by imitation than by rules " (Storm).

' But it must be remarked that such results are generally due not to using grammars, but to using the wrong grammars—those which ignore the living language in favour of the old-fashioned literary forms of it. . . . Nevertheless, while admitting the importance of the imitative principle, we must add that " rules are often a great help "—we may say " an indispensable help ".' Sweet: *Practical Study of Languages*.

Then there is Handschin, writing more recently[1]:

' However much we advocate the learning of grammar inductively and for use, we know just as emphatically that finally the student must have a systematic knowledge of grammar. He cannot remember the multitudinous facts except in groupings governed by principles. These latter must therefore be learned just as thoroughly as the individual facts. Indeed the student is just as helpless if he does not know the laws (rules) although he knows many concrete instances, as the students of the old school who knew the rules but scarcely any concrete instances. With all our advocacy of direct method in grammar, then, we recognise fully that finally the rules must be securely grasped and retained, though on the basis of acquired linguistic habits, not on that of pure memory work. Induction is, for adolescents certainly, the best mode of approach, but we know that the final goal of all schooling is the power of abstract thought, and in language work, the best instrument for training in abstract thinking is Grammar.'

The pendulum is apparently swinging back, not to the old extreme view but to a more balanced appreciation of all the features involved.

[1] *Methods of Teaching Modern Languages*, p. 184.

Conclusions

The following suggestions are offered on the position and treatment of grammar in an elementary school course.

1. A consideration of grammar is imperative ; it dare not be left to look after itself.

2. A systematic course calls for grammatical progression concurrent with vocabulary progression.

3. The arguments for selection and simplification of vocabulary apply equally or to a greater extent to grammar.

4. Grammar simplification and progression are more important for the active than the passive.

5. In the elementary stages grammar has practical rather than cultural value, as a means of simplifying the teaching process and forestalling error.

6. Formal grammar; which concerns itself with abstractions and tends to become a subject in itself, is unsuitable for the average elementary school course. Most grammatical forms can be taught functionally.

7. The inductive method should be applied.

8. The treatment of grammar will vary with the stage. Thus in the earlier stages little attempt should be made to separate vocabulary and grammar.

9. Paradigms are not useful. They are a form of mechanical learning which is not available for immediate application. (The pupil ought not to get at the form of the *third person, singular, present,* by running mentally through the paradigm, but by direct association with *he*).

10. Exceptions to generalisations should be dealt with

  only when encountered or in retrospect, but not in anticipation.

11. Grammatical terminology should be avoided, particularly in the early stages.[1] The form may be indicated by examples or by substituting a simpler, more direct term within the current vocabulary, e.g. *question form* (interrogative) ; *one* (singular), *many* (plural) ; *now* (present), *yesterday* (past), *to-morrow* (future) ; *telling form* (reported speech), *saying form* (direct speech) ; *double commas* (quotation marks) ; for parts of speech : *names, doing words, words like sad, sadly, on, and.*

12. Grammar for foreigners should not follow formal lines.

In the absence of research on the frequency values of grammatical features,[2] the following broad progressive scheme is offered as a purely tentative suggestion for possible guidance.

FIRST YEAR.

1. Tenses—Simple : present—past—future, positive, negative and interrogative ; Present Continuous.

2. Nouns : Plural in s—es—ies.

3. Pronouns : Personal, Interrogative.

4. Adjectives : Positive degree.

5. Conjunctions and prepositions as vocabulary.

6. Punctuation : Full stop, capitals.

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[1] Surprisingly *The New Method Grammar*, by H. E. Palmer, designed for the use of children whose passive vocabulary is assumed to be within the range of only 1,108 words, employs about 200 additional terms, the general usefulness of which may be gauged from the following specimens: *anomalous finites, determinatives, partitive nouns, adverbial particles.*

[2] The *Interim Report* suggests the following subject for possible research : ' A Study of Grammatical Categories for Frequency and Range of Occurrence.'

SECOND YEAR.

1. Verbs : Revision of simple tenses ; Past Continuous ; defective verbs.
2. Nouns : Plurals in s—es—ies—fs—ves.
   Possessive (Genitive).
3. Pronouns : Possessive, reflexive, relative.
4. Adjectives : Comparison.
5. Adverbs : Comparison.
6. Prepositions : Exercises in use of a few common ones, e.g. *in, at, by, with, for.*
7. Conjunctions : as vocabulary ; exercises in use of a few common ones, e.g. *and, or, but, so, than, either . . . or.*
8. Articles : *some, any, none.*
9. Punctuation : Comma, Quotation Marks.

THIRD YEAR.

1. Verbs : Tenses—Present, Past and Future Perfect. Future in Past.
2. All defective verbs.
   Reported Speech.
3. Nouns : All plural forms.
4. Articles : *some, any, no* compounds.
5. Adverbs : Exercises in position.
6. Prepositions and Conjunctions : Exercises.

FOURTH YEAR.

1. Verb. Revision of Simple, Continuous and Perfect.
2. Sequence of tenses.
3. Nouns : Abstract.
4. Agreement of Subject and Verb.
5. Verb and Object (transitive and intransitive use).
6. Preposition and Object.
7. Active and Passive Voice.
8. Word-Order.
9. Sentence, Clause and Phrase (explained).[1]

[1] A more detailed scheme is given in Chapter XI.

VI. SPEECH SOUNDS

' " Well, I'm glad you've come," her mother said, . . . " I want to tell 'ee what have happened. Y'll be fess enough, my poppet, when th'st know ! " (Mrs. Durbeyfield habitually spoke the dialect ; her daughter, who had passed the Sixth Standard in the National School under a London-trained mistress, spoke two languages ; the dialect at home, more or less ; ordinary English abroad and to persons of quality.) '

<div align="right">THOMAS HARDY : Tess of the D'Urbervilles.</div>

WHEN the study of a language is confined to reading or writing, the chief concern is with written symbols ; sound serves only as an auxiliary means of identification. When the course is extended, however, to speech, sound calls for direct consideration ; for the sounds of the spoken language are as characteristic a feature as its vocabulary or grammar. Thus a foreign language may be identified solely by hearing it spoken, and conversely the origin of a speaker may often be recognised by hearing him speak a familiar language.

In spite of the apparent importance of sounds, this feature is not generally given the attention it merits, even by those teachers who are meticulous about correctness of grammar. Their apparent neglect may possibly be due to studied indifference based on such arguments as the following :

1. The fundamental purpose of language is to express thought. What matters most is *what* one says, not *how* one says it, provided the meaning is intelligible.

2. Speech sounds, unlike grammar, lack uniformity of practice ; varieties of usage abound throughout the British Empire and the U.S.A.

3. The cultivation of an ' English voice ' is impossible

within the time and under the conditions of the course. The possible attainments do not warrant the time entailed, which would produce more appreciable results in the spheres of vocabulary and grammar.

4. The main factor is imitation. Just as the child acquires his native speech from the sounds heard in his home and locality, so will the pupil tend to approximate to the speech of the teacher with no necessity for conscious direction.

5. Voice production and phonetics generally are a subject in themselves and ought to be dealt with first in connection with the mother-tongue.

6. As the teacher's achievements are invariably assessed through written examinations the quality of the pupils' speech is a matter of apparent indifference to the authorities.

THE CASE FOR SOUND TREATMENT

1. Whatever the purpose of language, speech is never a one-sided performance, for a speaker implies a listener. Therefore the impression to be made on the listener is equally as important as the thoughts to be expressed. To the listener the manner of utterance will imply more than thoughts. It will usually denote the speaker's mood, attitude and general outlook, and will invariably reveal his background : origin, environment, education and social experience.

2. There is undoubtedly an aesthetic side to language which calls for more than sheer intelligibility.[1] A strange

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[1] ' But an intelligibility standard is not enough. Man does not live by science alone. He is a social animal and any conception of speech that does not pay due regard to its social implications is an inadequate conception.'—Prof. Lloyd James : *Our Spoken Language*, p. 160. Nelson, 1939.

rendering of English sounds may distract from the desired implication of the words.

3. If intelligibility is adduced as the sole criterion of efficiency, it might equally be applied to grammatical accuracy. It is possible to make oneself understood in a foreign language while doing violence to its grammatical forms. Such perpetrations as ' *he go not to work to-day* ' or ' *he has yesterday the letter written* ' leave no doubt as to meaning.

4. Despite the lack of uniformity in practice, there is a standard of reference for English sounds with which the teacher may acquaint himself. ' Standard English ' as presented in the numerous books on phonetics and heard in the common speech of cultured Englishmen in normal conversation is becoming increasingly current for the whole of England owing to the influence of national broadcasting.

5. Although deviations from Standard English are still extensive, the speech of all Englishmen is always conventionally correct, whatever its defects.[1] The foreigner, however, who indulges his natural speech habits offends against the spirit of the language by introducing alien sounds.

6. Between achieving a perfect ' English voice ' and speaking English with completely alien sounds and intonation, there is surely a range of standards. The purpose of sound treatment should be to approximate to normal English speech, or, negatively, to reduce deviations as far as possible. If this is admitted as a worthy aim its claims on the time of the course ought not to be denied.

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[1] ' Unless we are content to limit the field of speech training to the inculcation of a narrow, class standard of speech, it must be concerned with clearness of utterance, sensitiveness in modulation, precision of articulation, absence of vocal strain, and many other aspects, all of which affect cultured, no less than " vulgar " speech.'—Clarissa Bell in *Spoken English*, ed. by J. Compton, p. 17. Methuen, 1941.

7. Undirected imitation will not achieve the desired objective. There are too many elements in sound for the pupil to master successfully by merely hearing the language spoken ; while he is concentrating on certain novel features others elude his attention entirely. Even the native child has to be directed, and if neglected may acquire speech defects.

8. The final and strongest argument is that neglect of speech treatment might leave the pupil in a worse condition after the course than before it, as a result of his practising the wrong forms and thus forming vicious speech habits.

PHONETICS AND PHONETIC SCRIPT

To acquire proficiency in the highly specialised field of language instruction, the prospective teacher ought certainly to undergo a course in phonetics at the hands of a qualified instructor. Such training would serve the double purpose of improving the candidate's own speech and giving him a mastery of voice production. This recommendation, however, is not intended to imply that the teacher should in turn give his own pupils a similar course or apply the same technique, as advocated by many writers.[1] Whatever the merits of this method in Secondary Schools, where the language is begun at the age of twelve or above, it cannot be recommended as equally suitable for the Elementary School, where the language is begun at the age of ten or under. For immature minds the

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[1] ' I myself have even dared to go so far that in teaching a class in English, when I only had two hours a week for two years before the final examination, I spent the whole of the first year on phonetic transcription, and I did not regret it.'—Jespersen : *How to Teach a Foreign Language,* p. 172.

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strain of coping with two sets of symbols is excessive, and it is questionable whether the average teacher could engender and maintain interest in so purely technical a subject.

The treatment of language does not depend completely on the use of a special script. Much can be done to improve the standard of speech production by practising the sounds in isolation and in word-groups. The most appropriate time for dealing with the sounds of a new language is the initial stage before the pupils have begun to form bad speech habits. For this purpose a short course of ear-training drill, with possible instruction in sound production, should precede actual speech practice. In later stages regular revision of the basic sounds is needed to maintain a satisfactory standard.

A Few Suggestions for Sound Treatment

The chief elements of the sounds of spoken English are :

1. Articulation of Sounds.
2. Pronunciation of Words.
3. Intonation.

Articulation of Sounds.

If pupils are left to their own devices, and are expected to pick up the correct sounds by undirected imitation, they are liable to acquire vicious speech habits from the outset. They often start off by folding back their tongue or clenching their teeth in a mistaken impression of the characteristics of English speech. Instruction to counter these tendencies is a preliminary to any treatment of sounds.

The chief units of sound in Standard English are the following :

VOWELS.

short		long	
æ as in *mat*		aɪ as in *father*	
e	,, *'met*	eɪ	,, *bird*
i	,, *bit*	iː	,, *queen*
ɔ	,, *pot*	ɔɪ	,, *fought*
ʌ	,, *nut*	uː	,, *food*
u	,, *put*		

There are in addition the following two vowel sounds: ɛ as in *there* and ə, the neutral indeterminate sound heard at the beginning of words like *away, above,* and at the end of words like *player, fire, honour.*

It will be found that pupils tend to confuse the sounds of æ and e, æ and ʌ, i and iː (*live* and *leave*): and may fail to reproduce the aɪ in *father.* Eastern children tend generally to shorten the long vowels and certain diphthongs, and need special articulation practice in these sounds.

DIPHTHONGS.

ei as in *day*		ou as in *no*	
ai	,, *night*	oi	,, *boy*
au	,, *down*		

The sound of *ou* calls for particular attention as pupils tend to pronounce it without the aid of the lips.

The difficulties of English orthography and the necessity of a standard reference such as phonetic symbols can be appreciated when it is realised that the eighteen[1] vowel sounds shown above have only five symbols in the ordinary alphabet.

[1] There are possibly three additional diphthongs in the pronunciation of some speakers who refrain from sounding the *r* in such words as *dear, floor,* and *sure.*

CONSONANTS.

In phonetic script the following symbols are the same as in the ordinary alphabet :

b, p, d, t, k, g (hard), f, l, n, h, v, w, r, s, z.

Additional symbols are used for the following sounds :

ʃ as in *she*	ŋ as in *singer*
þ ,, *thin*	ʒ ,, *leisure*
ð ,, *then*	j ,, *yes*

Difficulties with the consonant sounds vary with the origin of the pupils. Some may find it difficult to pronounce the *þ* sound ; others the *w* or the *h* ; the voiced and voiceless *th* are often given the values of *s* or *z* (*then—zen, think—sink*) or even *d* or *t* (*thirteen—dirteen*). Instruction in voice production can help most pupils to overcome their natural difficulties.

For an initial introduction to the sounds of spoken English the teacher is recommended to make use of Prof. Lloyd James' *Our Spoken Language* (Nelson).

PRONUNCIATION OF WORDS.

Words are variously pronounced according to the choice of the particular syllable on which the accent (stress) falls. The lack of uniformity which marks the pronunciation of words even by speakers of Standard English does not, generally, affect the short common words which are the teacher's main concern.

One of the reasons for not dealing with words in isolation is that their pronunciation varies with their position in word-groups, e.g. *the* in ' *the book* ' and ' *the apple* ' ; *to* in ' Where did you go *to*? ' and ' I went *to the pictures* ' ; *was* in ' He *was at home* ' and ' *Was* he? ' ; *for* in ' Are you *for* or *against* the motion? ' and ' That is *for you* to say ' ;

always in ' He *always* (alwiz) says what he means,' ' Does he? Yes, *always* '.

In reading one is apt to be misled by the written symbols. This is particularly so with the neutral vowel sound, e.g. *ago, children, somebody, postman, ever, thousand, kingdom, actor, suppose, honour, England.*

INTONATION, i.e. the rise and fall of the pitch of the voice in varying tunes.

The importance of melody in speech cannot be over-emphasised. ' Melody ', as Lloyd James considers, ' is one of man's most powerful devices in speech, for it is an invaluable aid in helping him to establish his "meaning", to make known his emotional attitude towards his listener, to clothe the framework of his words with anger, joy, sadness, anxiety, eagerness, indifference, boredom, contempt, authority, fear, supplication, and a thousand other garbs.' [1]

Foreigners do not seem to pay as much attention to correct intonation as to pronunciation. They ' would be wise to remember that they are not likely to convey to their listeners the emotional atmosphere they expect, if they speak the foreign language on the lines that they would use in their mother-tongue to create the same.' [2]

The teacher must be on guard from the outset to prevent his pupils from indulging their native melody habits in speaking English, particularly when intoning questions. He ought to bear in mind that it is far easier to correct a defective pronunciation of a word than to effect a change of tune persistently misapplied.

For types of tunes common in spoken English the teacher is referred to *A Handbook of English Intonation*, by Armstrong and Ward (Heffer, 1939).

[1] *Our Spoken Language*, p. 134.   [2] *Ibid.*, p. 157.

VII. TRANSLATION AND DIRECT METHOD

KATHARINE : Alice, tu as été en Angleterre, et tu parles bien le langage.
ALICE :   Un peu, madame.
KATHARINE : Je te prie, m'enseignez ; il faut que j'apprenne à parler.
               Comment appelez-vous la main en Anglois?
ALICE :   La main? elle est appelée *de hand*.
KATHARINE : *De hand*. Et les doigts?
ALICE :   Les doigts? ma foi, j'oublie les doigts ; mais je me
               souviendrai. Les doigts? je pence qu'ils sont appelés
               de fingres ; oui, *de fingres*.
KATHARINE : La main, *de hand* ; les doigts, *de fingres*. Je pense que
               je suis le bon écolier ; j'ai gagné deux mots d'Anglois
               vîtement.

Henry V, Act III, Scene 4.

IF it is agreed that the use of language is essentially a skill,
or a series of skills, involving knowledge, the training
process calls mainly for

   (*a*) the acquisition of vocabulary and

   (*b*) the formation of correct language habits through
      practice.

To many this interpretation may appear almost axio-
matic, but actually it is a comparatively modern view.
Formerly foreign languages were considered as subjects
for study rather than for practice, the normal procedure
being to read texts and subject them to a thorough analysis
from the philological angle. The medium of instruction
was invariably the mother-tongue, and incursions into the
foreign language were carried out by means of translation.
The whole subject was looked upon as a sort of mental
discipline and as a possible aid to the mastery of the native
language and grammar. In other words, the methods of
learning living foreign languages were modelled on the

study of the classical languages. For the same reason texts were taken almost exclusively from literary models, the colloquial forms being looked upon as debased deviations from the purer classical style. As the schools were subordinated to examinations which tested knowledge only in writing and through translation, there was little encouragement to acquire proficiency in speech and little to show in this direction after many years of study.

When the reform movement began, towards the end of the last century, the reaction was extremely acute and tended to disparage all previous methods as being antiquated, tedious, unpractical and dull. The new trends may be inferred from the varied names which the reformers gave to their respective systems. These included :

The Reform Method	The Rational Method
The New Method	The Concrete Method
The Natural Method	The Organised Method
The Oral Method	The Intuitive Method
The Conversational Method	The Berlitz Method
The Direct Method	The Gouin Method
The Correct Method	The Anti-Classical Method
The Sensible Method	The Anti-Grammatical Method
The Analytical Method	

So strong was the effect of the reform movement on the teaching of modern foreign languages that it spread even to the teaching of the classical languages.

However, when the reforms in turn were subjected to the test of time—and examinations, they did not quite live up to all their promises and expectations, and in the opinion of many, particularly the old type of highly cultured classical language master, they have proved to be

superficial, spectacular and devoid of cultural value. As a result of the counter-reaction there are conflicting schools of opinion to-day and the question has become highly controversial. It certainly calls for discussion and possible elucidation, since many people make use of the terms Direct Method and Translation Method without being fully aware of their implications.

Fundamentally, of course, they differ on the part to be played by the vernacular in the process of foreign-language learning. The Translation Method would make extensive use of the mother-tongue for the purposes of vocabulary building, grammar instruction and explanations of texts. The Direct Method in its extreme form would completely eliminate the vernacular for all purposes. The two systems usually differ too on the method of grammar instruction, the one favouring formal, the other functional grammar.

The Translation Method Examined

Arguments in Favour.

1. It is claimed to be the speediest and surest way of building up a vocabulary, as

- (a) it proceeds from the known to the unknown, or conversely ;
- (b) it establishes a strong memory bond between the foreign symbol and the native word ; and
- (c) it saves considerable time by offering a single equivalent instead of definition or explanation.

2. (a) It avoids all ambiguity in regard to vocabulary and grammar ; it leads to word mastery and perfect understanding.

(b) As the source of most errors is the conscious or subconscious use of the mother-tongue as model, translation can eradicate error by contrasting the two languages and dealing with the misconception at its source.

CRITICISM.

1. All the arguments appear to relate to the acquisition of vocabulary and the teaching of grammar, but not to fluency in speech and writing.

2. Even for the acquisition of vocabulary it is not a perfect medium, because

(a) not every English word, phrase or idiom has a corresponding equivalent in the vernacular, e.g. *rather, any, own, would, might, if ever, not at all.*

(b) Words are best studied in contexts—a full appreciation of them comes with extended language experience.[1]

(c) The bond established between the native word and the foreign word is not an advantage, as the words tend to be recalled in association, thus hindering fluency.

3. Even for the passive it is not ultimately satisfactory, as the habit of word-for-word translation hinders the rapid absorption of large word-groups—which is the essence of reading.

4. When the mother-tongue is used extensively in the lesson, the time left for practising the language in speech is correspondingly curtailed.

5. A mixture of languages is always unfavourable, as the

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[1] As Vendryes says : ' Words always have a current value. In current use a word has only one meaning at a time.'

mind is jolted when it has to switch from one medium to another; even those who are already masters of both languages are affected by sudden switches.

6. For the pupils the vernacular is obviously the easier medium of expression. If the teacher resorts to it freely the pupils will become still less inclined to make use of the harder medium even within their vocabulary range.

7. Translation ought to be an aim in itself, in the advanced stages of the course, when the pupils already have a certain mastery of the new language and can reasonably be expected to keep the two media apart. In the elementary stages the pupils cannot be expected to have reached this standard, and therefore translation as an aim must be precluded.

8. It seriously hinders the inculcation of correct speech and reading habits.

THE DIRECT METHOD EXAMINED

The Direct Method is based on the following four principles (as expounded by Louis De Glihn in *The New Teaching*[1]).

1. FIRST PRINCIPLE.

It aims at developing an instinctive language sense or *Sprachgefühl*, which rests at bottom on the direct association between experience and expression and is the only sure guide in the use of a language.

This language sense has its roots in the spoken language. ' Speech first. Writing and reading second.' The ideal method is essentially an oral method.

[1] *The New Teaching*, edited by Sir John Adams. Hodder & Stoughton, 1925.

2. SECOND PRINCIPLE.

To ensure the direct association between experience and expression no rival speech sounds must intervene. By banishing translation, pupils acquire the habit of direct association, which will tend to make them understand directly what they hear and read, and express directly what is in their mind, provided it is within their linguistic range.

3. THIRD PRINCIPLE.

The acquisition of a foreign language by a child must follow the lines of his acquisition of his mother-tongue. This is in keeping with the first principle that speech must take precedence of writing and reading. It is in sentences that a child learns to talk, or at any rate in groups of words that imply a sentence. We think in ' sense groups '. The single word is a lexicographical, not a psychological, unit. It follows that our speech unit must be the sentence.

4. FOURTH PRINCIPLE.

Inductive teaching of the laws governing the structure and use of the language.

Other positive features of the system are (1) the maximum time devoted to language practice, (2) the creation of a favourable atmosphere, and (3) the interest engendered in the lessons.

The following opinion of an eminent American authority[1] is worth quoting at length :

' By direct method is here meant interpreting without the use of the mother-tongue. That this is the best method if a speaking knowledge and an intimate acquaintance with the language are desired is now fully accepted. The psychological reason for this is as follows : There is a set of habits peculiar to

[1] C. D. Handschin: *Methods of Teaching Modern Languages,* p. 53.

each language—of thought, of intonation, of position, of words, of grammatical accidence, etc.—which together make up the genius of the language. The successive states of consciousness with all their peculiarity of feeling, willing, and thinking expressed by the consecutive speech, are so different from the corresponding states of consciousness expressed in another language that it is impossible for the foreigner to get the exact meaning of a whole sentence even though the meaning of all the individual words in it be known to him.

' To get this set of habits which make the genius of a foreign language is impossible by a method which alternates the two sets of habits (as in translation) of the foreign and the native language. To form new habits is, as we well know, psychologically impossible under these circumstances. There must be for a time—according to standard prescription—a complete break with the old habit and a definite substitution of the new for it. Here is the warrant for the use of the Direct Method. This is the reason for immersing the learner completely in foreign sounds, constructions, words, intonation, etc., especially in the initial stages of his study, or until the new habits have had time to form. This is the explanation also for the failure of translation methods to impart " a feeling for the language " ; i.e. to establish new linguistic habits. The teacher of indirect methods is doomed to defeat since he is attempting to teach new habits in the environment of the old ones, and since his method is running counter to the most fixed modes of reacting on the part of the pupil.'

CRITICISM.

1. Only a part of vocabulary can be taught by direct association or experience (object $\rightarrow$ symbol) ; the rest has to be taught by (1) synonym (2) antonym (3) definition (4) explanation (5) context.

The process is therefore often a matter of proceeding

from one unknown to another unknown ; hence error is not safeguarded against.

2. The pupils tend, in consequence, to indulge in mental translation in an attempt to identify the concept. In this way the method becomes even more complicated than in translation. Thus, foreign concept → explanation in foreign language → understanding in native language → identification of concept, instead of foreign concept → equivalent in native language → identification.[1]

3. Progress in reading tends to be slow in the early stages when all fresh vocabulary has to be dealt with on active lines.

4. Pupils gain only a superficial knowledge of words ; there is not complete confidence in their word mastery.

5. They do not acquire a mastery of grammatical forms, because the medium in which these are explained is itself a source of difficulty. It is only in the advanced stages that the pupil can be presumed to think in the foreign language.

6. A comparison with the mother-tongue is often desirable to eradicate persistent errors.

7. If we could duplicate the conditions under which a child acquires its mother-tongue, we might expect corresponding results, but the artificial conditions of the classroom for a number of periods per week preclude this.

CONCLUSIONS

It will be admitted that there are advantages and defects in both systems, but that the weight of argument appears to favour Translation for vocabulary and grammar, and

[1] For a fuller treatment see Palmer's *The Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages.*

Direct Method lines for language habits. In view of the principle that the acquisition of language habits is of greater importance where the aims include active as well as passive, the Direct Method must be accepted as the fundamental method, but subject to modifications.

The following recommendations are therefore offered :

1. The basis of language is its oral form.[1] All lessons should therefore be conducted on Direct Method lines.

2. Translation may be resorted to when the other medium is not immediately effective, provided that its introduction does not impair the harmonious process of speech practice.

3. Translation of words is more useful for passive reading. For this purpose lists of words may be given out or written up on the blackboard at the beginning or end of a lesson. Once the pupils have identified the term there is no further need for the use of the mother-tongue. Thus pupils should not normally be called upon to furnish equivalents for words in either language.

4. Translation should be resorted to freely to elucidate points of grammar. Here the essential purpose is to impress on the pupils a particular form or relationship, and perfect understanding is imperative. Subsequent practice of the form will of course be conducted in the foreign language. In the case of weak pupils it may be advisable to establish a cross

[1] ' Spoken language comes first and is the reality of speech, written words are a later invention and have no life beyond that which the reader puts into them when he pronounces the sounds for which they were written.'—H. C. Wyld : *The Growth of English*, p. 7. John Murray, 1907.

bond between the two language forms, so as to check the tendency to literal translation.

5. It must be borne in mind that the Direct Method is a positive, not a negative system. The mere elimination of the mother-tongue from the lesson is not sufficient. Unless the teacher insists on immediate and automatic responses, his lesson is virtually equivalent to one conducted on Translation lines. The chief characteristics of a Direct Method lesson, particularly in the early stages, are its briskness, liveliness and intensiveness.

EXERCISES TO ILLUSTRATE TREATMENT OF VOCABULARY

1. Vocabulary may be dealt with in the following ways :
(1) translation (2) antonym (3) context (4) synonym (5) illustration (sketch) (6) pointing to object or demonstrating action (7) explanation (8) definition. In which order would you apply them in a speech lesson?

2. How would you deal with the following words on Direct Method Lines in a second-year class?

1. uncle	5. far	9. kitchen	13. never	17. dirty
2. garden	6. sky	10. serve	14. great	18. towns
3. fairies	7. rather	11. ugly	15. moon	19. voice
4. death	8. believe	12. alone	16. hurt	20. oil

3. What are the corresponding vernacular terms, if any, of the following?

1. however	6. any	11. to treat	16. to struggle
2. ago	7. own (adj.)	12. efficient	17. likely
3. quite	8. tiger	13. to favour	18. to fasten
4. proper	9. plenty	14. graceful	19. neat
5. along	10. to pick	15. to pretend	20. violent

4. Which of the following have a corresponding vernacular phrase?

1. the other day
2. no longer
3. not at all
4. in that case
5. after all
6. once for all
7. fast asleep
8. I believe not
9. He can't help it
10. to go to bed
11. old-fashioned
12. Never again!
13. Certainly not!
14. out of date
15. up to date
16. wide awake
17. Some day
18. on board
19. a certain man
20. Look here!
21. a narrow escape
22. without fail
23. It looks like rain
24. I mean to say
25. to catch a train
26. to catch cold
27. out of practice
28. not at home
29. I have a good mind to
30. the sooner the better
31. Why, of course
32. Yes, I do

5. How would you explain the distinction between :

1. house—home
2. sky—heaven
3. mind—brain
4. beautiful— handsome
5. sound—voice
6. big—great
7. wide—broad
8. hope—expect
9. say—tell
10. possible— probable
11. receive—accept
12. bring—fetch
13. cause—reason
14. part—depart
15. special— particular
16. affect—effect
17. idle—lazy
18. knowledge— information
19. tall—high
20. assure—ensure
21. older—elder

VIII. THE SPEECH SKILL

There is a Slavonic proverb, " If you wish to talk well, you must murder the language first." '—OTTO JESPERSEN.
' It is by continually making mistakes that we form the habit of making mistakes.'—HAROLD PALMER.

Speech in a language course is both

(1) an end in itself, i.e. a skill, and
(2) a means, i.e. a device for testing understanding, for practising forms and for creating interest.

Many teachers treat speech as an aim in the initial stages but subsequently use it only as a means. Positive results, however, can only be achieved when speech is viewed as a major objective throughout the course and when it follows a progressive scheme of its own.

Speech is not an easy skill to master, because it calls for

(1) fluency, involving the spontaneous application of vocabulary, and
(2) accuracy, i.e. of vocabulary (the right word in the right place), of grammar (correct forms, agreement and sentence construction), of sounds (articulation, pronunciation and intonation).

POSSIBLE OBJECTIVE

What is the goal in a limited course? Is it the ability to conduct normal conversation, i.e. to talk correctly about all subjects, or an ability to talk more or less correctly about some things?

Handschin, discussing this question in regard to American High Schools, makes only modest demands :

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'We know very well that speaking is not attainable in four years, but fluent speaking is not the aim of oral work in high-school courses. A good start in speaking and ability to understand the spoken language easily, both of which greatly aid the ability to read, are our aims in oral work.'[1]

It would save much disappointment and preclude adverse criticism if it were agreed from the outset that the speech aim is not to make the pupils of the elementary school masters of fluent, idiomatic, racy English, that is, capable of using the language freely to discuss all subjects, but mainly to lay the foundations of speech, so that given scope for extensive practice in a subsequent higher course, in occupation or in social intercourse they will be better qualified to utilise their opportunities and acquire proficiency rapidly.

Two Schools of Opinion

It has been observed that successful speech implies both fluency and accuracy. To most teachers one or other of these two factors will appear the more important, and methods will be subordinated to the respective point of view.

The conflicting attitudes may be designated as

1. The Natural School, which favours free conversation as an early means, and
2. The Drill School, favouring systematic progression along controlled lines, involving repetitive practice.[2]

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[1] *Methods of Teaching Modern Languages*, p. 134.

[2] That extreme opinions do obtain may be gathered from the following conflicting views.

Jespersen, in *How to Teach a Foreign Language* (p. 143), says : 'There is a Slavonic proverb, " If you wish to talk well, you must murder the

CONTRASTING ARGUMENTS

The possible arguments and counter-arguments of the two schools might be listed as follows :

' *Natural* ' School	' *Drill* ' School
1. Restrictions are unnatural devices tending to discourage self-expression and to inhibit fluency.[1]	1. Fluency without accuracy is merely practice in wrong forms and leads to vicious habits difficult to eradicate.
2. Fluency is a habit in itself and ought to be inculcated early in the course.	2. Fluency is certainly a habit which is not dependent on extent of vocabulary ; it can be cultivated within the limits of the pupil's vocabulary.

language first." But this is often overlooked by teachers of language who demand faultless accuracy from the beginner and often keep their pupils grinding so long at some little part of the subject that their desire to learn the language is gone for ever.'

In contrast to this view there is Palmer's in *The Oral Method of Teaching Languages* (p. 131) :

' This form of work (normal conversation) can only be used with profit with advanced students. As a means of correcting bad linguistic habits it is worse than useless, for it would merely fix or deepen the vicious tendencies of the student. It is by continually making mistakes that we form the habit of making mistakes, and if we encourage the student to use normal conversation before he has been drilled into good habits, we cause him to be a fluent speaker of " pidgin ".'

[1] The following quotation from the work of an eminent French philologist would appear to lend some support to the view that fluency ought not to be harnessed to grammatical accuracy :

' What particularly characterises spoken language is that it contents itself with emphasising the main lines of thought. These alone emerge and dominate the sentence, while the logical relations of words and component parts of the sentence are either imperfectly indicated with the help if necessary of intonation and gesture, or are not indicated at all and have to be supplied by intuition. This spoken language thus approximates to spontaneous language (under pressure of emotion).

3. Lessons are brighter when the pupils are allowed to express themselves (with the teacher's aid) beyond the limits of the text-book or the prescribed course.

3. When the course is systematically progressive there is constant interest; there are other and worthier devices for enhancing interest.

CONCLUSIONS

As all the arguments are valid the ultimate opinion in either direction ought to be flavoured with the opposing views. The following recommendations are therefore offered :

1. Fluency is not to be interpreted as implying an ability to talk freely but as meaning a habit of speech corresponding in manner to normal speech. The characteristics of normal speech are the absence of hesitation, the spontaneous use of vocabulary and the unconscious application of grammatical rules.

2. Fluency in this sense must be made a specific aim.

3. Fluency without a fair degree of accuracy is merely the formation of wrong habits.

4. Correct habits are formed by intensive practice ; hence the necessity of drill methods.

5. The principle of vocabulary limitation imposes restrictions, but fluency may be attained within any vocabulary range.

6. In the advanced stages there should be a gradual relaxing of restriction to give scope for freer expression.

The striking words are then prominently placed, as the speaker has neither the leisure nor the time to mould his thought according to the strict rules of reflective and organised language. Spontaneous language is therefore in definitive contrast to grammatical language.'—Vendryes : *Language*, p. 148.

7. There is danger in over-indulgence in repetitive methods and excessive control. Pupils vary in their mental habits and cannot be expected to respond uniformly to the same stimuli. The teacher must therefore be alert to the danger of his drill methods degenerating into mechanical oppressive routine.

8. Accuracy for speech must not be interpreted too strictly as identical with accuracy in reflective writing.

How a Child Acquires its Mother-Tongue

Of the three skills, reading, writing and speech, the last is the only one which the native may be said to acquire naturally and to a highly successful degree. Presumably then there is much to be learnt from the manner in which the process is accomplished.

Wilhelm Stern[1] has noted the following features :

1. Imitation is the factor which above all others makes it possible for the child to learn to speak. (That is why deaf children remain dumb as well.) Imitation may be conscious, when repetition occurs immediately, or unconscious and unintentional, with inward acceptance of word-concepts which only in the fullness of time cross the threshold of speech.

2. The first stage is unconscious speech.

3. The second stage is conscious speech—in single words. The child's first utterances are not words in the real sense but whole sentences. (Thus the child's *Mama!* means variously, *Mother, come here ; Mother, help me*, etc.) The order is first nouns, then verbs, later adjectives, i.e. substance, action, relation and attribute stages.

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[1] *Psychology of Early Childhood.* Allen & Unwin, 1924.

4. The third language stage is the use of inflexion and syntax. It is not yet grammatical; there are statements and questions but the latter are without words of interrogation.

5. The beginning of the fourth period is marked by the appearance of subordinate clauses. Conditional clauses are last.

Jespersen devotes a considerable part of his book on Language[1] to the child. Among the features he notes are the following :

1. The understanding of what is said always precedes the power of saying the same thing oneself—often precedes it for an extraordinarily long time.

2. One thing which plays a great role in the acquisition of a language by children is ' echoism '. One often observes a child repeating to himself an overheard remark.

3. Grammar does not come of itself. It demands much labour on the part of the child. Witness its numerous mistakes.

He then discusses the question why the native language is learned so well. First he objects to these popular theories :

1. Flexibility of the organs of speech.
2. The child's ear is especially sensitive to impressions.
3. No established habits to contend against. (It has bad habits formed in earlier stages.)
4. The child has nothing else to do. (It is perhaps busier learning things in these earlier years than at any other period of life.)

[1] *Language : Its Nature, Development and Origin.* Allen & Unwin, 1925.

5. Heredity. (Environment has greater influence than descent.)

JESPERSEN'S EXPLANATION :

1. The time of learning is most favourable. The first years of life provide the highest capacity for development and adaptability.

2. More abundant opportunities from parents and nurses. Repetition by elders is accompanied by actions. Women are more patient and talkative as nurses.

3. Lessons go on all the year round and are exclusive.

4. Language and situation always correspond exactly to one another and mutually illustrate one another. Gesture and facial expression harmonise with the words uttered and keep the child to a right understanding.

5. The child's own attempts at speech lead to fulfilment of desires, so that his command of language has great practical advantages for him.

6. Excessive passive knowledge (overheard conversation).

7. The relation between the child's instructors and the child is more cordial and personal ; they encourage but do not criticise unduly.

8. A contributory reason is that the child's linguistic needs, to begin with, are more limited than those of the man who wishes to be able to talk about anything, or at any rate about something.

To these might be added :

9. The child has intense interest in sounds and rhythm ; hence the appeal of doggerel, nursery rhymes and songs.

10. The child displays an insatiable passion for stories. This is a later development which marks the progress from

the concrete to the abstract, from the immediate environment to the world at large, from the present to the past.

11. Children vary considerably in their manner and rate of progress.

Conditions of Acquiring the Foreign Language

1. The conditions in the classroom are not natural, because the pupils are not physically free and active.

2. The time devoted to the new language is extremely limited.

3. The pupil already possesses language habits which predispose him to express himself in a manner peculiar to his native speech.

4. The native child acquires both vocabulary and fresh concepts simultaneously.   The child learning a foreign language at the age of ten is concerned only with the language.

Pointers for Methods

From the manner in which the child acquires his native language the following pointers emerge :

1. There is a valuable pre-speech stage of passive assimilation, which Palmer calls the ' Incubation period '.

2. The importance of gesture and intonation.

3. Value of echoism (concert practice?).

4. Necessity for intensive methods to correspond to the child's excessive repetition.

5. Building up of vocabulary naturally and directly in the initial stages (direct bond between object or concept and word) according to the pupil's normal experiences (daily habits, environment, interests).

6. Appeal of songs.

7. Appeal of stories suitable to the pupil's mental age.

8. Consideration of the child's tendency to be strictly rational. Errors are to be sought in false analogy.

9. Importance of sympathetic treatment and encouragement.

10. Limitation of subject matter in the early stages.

11. Practical use of early knowledge.

12. Language and situation should coincide. Abstractions should be left to more advanced stages.

13. Lessons should be as lively and entertaining as possible.

14. Possible advantage of employing women for first-year work.

15. Uniformity of progress not to be expected.

16. Order of development—Understanding, speech, reading, writing.

FUTILITY OF CONVENTIONAL CLASS METHODS

Before proceeding to the planning of a course there is a further aspect to be considered.

Dr. Michael West has assailed the orthodox speech lesson as being practically useless for the purpose of training the pupils in speech.[1] He calculates that in a class of thirty pupils receiving a lesson of forty-five minutes, the actual speaking practice of the average pupil does not exceed forty-five seconds per lesson, assuming that half the time is taken up by the teacher's questions. Thus

$$\frac{45 \text{ minutes} \times 60 \text{ seconds}}{2 \times 30} = 45 \text{ seconds.}$$

(Teacher's talking time)　　(Other children's talking time)

[1] *Learning to Speak a Foreign Language.* Longmans, 1936.

For this reason he advocates an alternative method, with all the children active all the time. This calls for the grouping of the children in pairs, in which one acts as interrogator and his companion as responder, or one supplies the guide-words and checks the response from the book. All activity is simultaneous and there is thus economy of time on the part of the class and of energy on the part of the teacher.

This system, however plausible, is open to objections on many grounds (dependence on text-book, lack of variety, strain on discipline, unnatural voice) but chiefly because its basic argument is unsound. When Dr. West calculates that the conventional speech lesson only gives the individual pupil forty-five seconds of speech practice each lesson, he implies that a collective lesson is virtually a series of private lessons. If this were so, all teachers ought to be congratulated on obtaining remarkable results in the course of only ten hours of intensive practice during a four-year course. This can be arrived at by the same arithmetical calculation :

45 seconds × 5 (lessons per week) = 225 seconds
225 seconds × 40 (weeks) = 9,000 seconds = 150 minutes
150 minutes × 4 (years) = 600 minutes = 10 hours

The reason why the conventional lesson with the teacher as interrogator and prompter is indeed a collective lesson is that speech activity may proceed without audibility. As Palmer puts it :[1]

' It is generally supposed that articulation occurs only when we actually speak, that the sole function of articulation is to make ourselves heard in speech. But in reality we articulate

[1] *The Oral Method of Teaching Languages*, p. 21.

not only what we say aloud, but also what we hear, what we read, what we think. When we speak we articulate aloud, the muscles of our organs of speech actually move and produce a succession of actual sounds. When we listen with understanding to what someone is saying, when we read with understanding anything written and when we " are thinking to ourselves ", we articulate mentally, our speech muscles, without necessarily moving, are stimulated by the nerves communicating with the speech centre of our brain.'

Even if Dr. West's alternative method is rejected his criticism of the collective lesson ought to be borne in mind as a check on extreme tendencies. To overcome some of the possible defects of the conventional speech lesson the following precautions might be adopted : ·

1. The teacher should avoid monopolising the lesson by excessive speech.

2. All pupils should be given equal opportunity to practise speech.

3. Waste of time necessitated by corrections should be reduced to a minimum.

4. The tempo of a speech lesson should be brisk in order to eliminate wasteful pauses.

5. The weak pupils should not be given excessive training in class time.

6. Special devices should be adopted to enhance interest so that listening may indeed imply inner speech.

STAGES

The following progressive stages are suggested for a speech course in an elementary school or the corresponding classes of a secondary school.

Ear-Training. This is a necessary preliminary to actual speech. It has two purposes :

> (1) ear-training (reception).
> (2) sound drill (reproduction).

Even for initial practice we must demand fluent and accurate reproduction of the teacher's model speech. This cannot be expected if the pupils are called upon to speak immediately after hearing the language used for the first time, because their main attention will have been concentrated on the meaning of the spoken words with only vague appreciation of the actual sounds. By postponing reproduction of speech we can enable the pupils to deal with meaning and sounds separately. In the first part of the lesson they listen to the teacher's speech and concentrate on the meaning, while their ears become attuned to the sounds. In the second part of the lesson they are given training in sound reproduction, which is free from other associations since the medium of instruction is the mother-tongue.

This ear-training stage corresponds to the pre-speech stage of the native child. It will not be purely passive, because the pupils will be called upon to respond to speech by executing the teacher's commands silently. These commands may be easily followed on Direct Method lines as the teacher will employ gesture, which alone would be sufficient for comprehension. Thus an upward motion of the hand clearly indicates an order to stand up, a downward motion, to sit down ; a motion towards the speaker implies an order to come forward, and a gesture towards an object directs the pupil to proceed there. Subsequently the words themselves achieve the

desired response and thus become the beginning of the pupil's receptive vocabulary.

The following examples indicate the character of the work for this stage :

Touch your desks—heads—ears. . . .

Point to the door—a wall—a picture. . . .

Look up—down—under your desks—behind you. . . .

Look at me—him—us—them. . . .

Hold up a pen—pencil—book—one hand—two hands. . . .

Put your pencils on (in, under) your desks. . . .

Go to the door—window—that desk. . . .

Stand near the blackboard—the door—my desk. . . .

Take this book and put it on that desk.

The end of the stage is reached when the pupils are able to respond automatically to all speech within the initial vocabulary of approximately a hundred words.[1]

Sound Drill. It is assumed that pupils ought not to be called upon to reproduce sentences before they have demonstrated their ability to reproduce individual sounds correctly. Every language has characteristic sounds apart from shaded distinctions. The teacher's initial concern should be some of the completely novel and strange sounds which have no near counterpart in the native language.

THE SECOND STAGE

Introduction of Speech. The pupil's first speech efforts should take the form of conventional responses to simple questions. The forms of the replies being stereotyped call for little mental effort and with practice become purely automatic.

These sentence types serve as moulds into which the

[1] For model lessons on these lines see the writer's *An English Course for Foreign Children*, Book I, Alternative Edition. Macmillan, 1939.

previous passive vocabulary may be inserted by substitution of odd words.

Varied types of questions are given both for their intrinsic usefulness and to enable the pupils to acquire the habit of spontaneous speech within their limited vocabulary.

Here are a few examples to show the scope of this stage :

Question :	*Answer :*
1. Is this a pen?	Yes (No).
2. Is this a pencil?	Yes, it is. (No, it is not.)
3. Is this a pen or a pencil?	It's a pen.
4. What is this?	It's a pencil.
5. What is that?	It's a window.
6. Are you a boy?	Yes, I am.
7. Who are you?	I am Dick.
8. Who am I?	You are Mr. Smith.
9. Where are you?	We are in the classroom.
10. Have you a book?	Yes, I have.
11. Has he a pen?	No, he has not.
12. Is an apple big or little?	It's little.
13. Do you learn English?	Yes, I do.
14. Do you teach English?	No, I don't.
15. Does Mr. Jones teach you English?	No, he doesn't.
16. Who teaches you English?	You do.
17. What does a teacher do?	He teaches.
18. What do I teach you?	You teach us English.
19. What do we do with our eyes?	We see with our eyes.
20. With what do I write on the blackboard?	You write on the blackboard with chalk.

The shortened colloquial forms are best introduced early, as the change over is more difficult to effect later.

Amusement and instruction may be derived from a novel form of grammar lesson. In order to teach and practise the negative the following method is adopted : The teacher makes a statement which is obviously wrong or even absurd and has it corrected by the pupils, who employ both negative and positive forms, e.g. *Harry stands on his head. Is this right or wrong? It's wrong. Why is it wrong? Because Harry does not stand on his head. He stands on his feet.* Once the formula is mastered this grammatical feature is practised, not with tears but with amusement. Consider the following further examples of nonsense statements for correction :

> Jack sees with his ears.
> Dick catches a ball with his eyes.
> We play football with our hands.
> A schoolboy teaches you.
> Tom writes with his left hand.
> He washes with chalk and ink.

There are numerous devices for making even a drill lesson entertaining.

THE THIRD STAGE

Sustained Speech. The question-and-answer drill does not give practice in continuous discourse, for every sentence used by the pupil has to be prompted by a question.

In order to initiate continuous speech the method of sequences is now introduced. This is an adaptation of the Gouin system whereby memorising is assisted by associating a series of operations, thus[1] :

[1] See *The Art of Teaching and Studying Languages*, by François Gouin. George Philip, 1892.

> Every morning I get up.
> First I wash.
> Then I dress.
> Then I eat.
> Then I go to school.

This is developed further into :

> I get up from bed in the morning.
> I take my clothes and put them on.
> I wash my hands and face.
> I have my breakfast.
> I take my schoolbag and go to school.

For interest and association we follow the child's daily activities at school and at home. By changes of person and number incidental points of grammar are subconsciously absorbed by the pupils.

The sequential method is a valuable aid to the introduction of the past and future tenses. Having followed the child's daily activities in the present, we proceed to discuss the same activities in the past, with augmented vocabulary, thus :

Yesterday I opened my eyes. It was morning. I got up. My clothes were on a chair near my bed. I put them on. Then I washed. Afterwards I had my breakfast.

After breakfast I took my schoolbag and went out of my house. I walked in the streets. I looked at the shops. I saw men and women, boys and girls. . . .

The future is similarly dealt with :

To-morrow morning I shall get up, wash, dress and have breakfast. After breakfast I shall take my schoolbag and go to school.

I shall play in the schoolyard. The bell will ring. We shall line up or go into the classroom.

THE FOURTH STAGE

Coordination with Reading. The method of coordinating speech and reading will be dealt with in the next chapter. For this stage speech serves as both an end and a means. Questions on reading matter give practice in varied types of sentences and lead the way to story-telling and oral composition.

THE FIFTH STAGE

Oral Composition. This is a more advanced form of continuous discourse. The most suitable matter for the purpose is fables or short anecdotes.[1]

THE SIXTH STAGE

Summarising of Reading Matter. The oral summarising of reading matter is a valuable exercise both linguistically and mentally. It is an excellent preliminary to free expression and is preferable to the latter at this stage, as it obviates the search for ideas and vocabulary.

THE SEVENTH STAGE

Free Application. If the previous stages have been well executed the class should be ready for conversation released from the constraint of the text-book. It calls for considerable ingenuity on the part of the teacher to get all the pupils to launch themselves into spontaneous speech without undue prompting.[2]

This stage must not be considered as that of free con-

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[1] An example is given in the chapter on Reading.

[2] Suggestions may be obtained from *The Play Way* by Caldwell Cook. Heinemann, 1917.

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versation, as all discussion must be conducted within the pupils' active vocabulary and grammatical range, with only occasional extensions.

However, if free conversation is made an objective the time for indulging it is in this final stage following extensive and intensive practice in speech freed from the additional difficulty of finding what to say.

IX. THE READING SKILL

' During the very natural reaction which set in a few years ago, reading as an end to information, which in practice means silent reading, was emphasised at the expense of reading aloud. In a sane English scheme, both aims will be kept in mind, and because present-day teachers are still in the backwash of the reaction spoken of above, the peculiar need of the time is a new conception of the art of reading aloud.'

W. S. TOMKINSON : *The Teaching of English.*

PROFICIENCY IN READING

THE art of reading is mainly a matter of concentrating on the import of the written words, and not on the words themselves. Words are merely the medium whereby the message of the writer is conveyed to the reader.

A pupil is said to have acquired correct reading habits when he can focus his attention on the message and not on the form ; when he treats the text as a familiar form of discourse and not as a task in deciphering. He is a reader in the true sense when he ' sees through the printed page to the message beyond, much as a person gazes through a window to the view outside without consciousness of the glass '.[1]

It was difficult to arrive at this stage under the old translation methods which concentrated on the single word and made the pupil conscious of its association with the corresponding word in the mother-tongue. Reading by word-concentration is a pernicious method corresponding to typing with one finger ; it can by practice lead to a certain proficiency, but not to the required skill.

[1] Morrison : *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School.* University of Chicago Press, 1927.

'It is frequently supposed,' writes Palmer,[1] 'that we understand what we read or hear by noting the meaning of each successive word. As a matter of fact this is not the case. It has been proved experimentally that the eye of the reader advances along the lines by a series of jumps; occasionally the jumps are short ones extending over a single word, but generally they are jumps over several words or whole sentences.'

Laboratory experiments in reading are described in the American and Canadian Report. 'The apparatus by which the movements of the eye are photographed reflects a beam of light from the eye upon a film in such a way that each horizontal movement forward or backward while reading is recorded on a sensitive surface, as well as the duration of each fixation period.'[2]

'The three criteria which mark progress towards maturity of reading habits are a widening of the eye-spans, a reduction in the number of regressive movements per line and a shortening of the duration of fixation pauses.'[3]

Widening of the eye-span. The eye should take in at a glance not the single word only but the word-group that conveys a single notion. This may be a group comprising a noun and qualifiers, verb and object, phrase or clause, or even a complete sentence. Mature readers of their own language vary in their eye-spans. Rapid readers may take in two or three lines at a glance and some professional reviewers claim to take in half a page or more at a single look.

[1] *The Oral Method of Teaching Languages*, pp. 16, 17.
[2] *A Summary of Reports*, p. 142.
[3] *Ibid.*, p. 145.

Fixation and regression, i.e. pauses in reading (stopping and going back), are caused by difficulties encountered. These may be due to unknown words or to the complexity of the ideas. Fluent reading can only be expected therefore of foreign pupils if all obstacles have previously been eliminated from the text. These obstacles are not vocabulary only, as some text-book compilers would have us believe. They may be due to grammatical forms or content. All texts employing an identical vocabulary are not equally easy to read, a fact not sufficiently appreciated by writers of simplified stories.

COMPILATION OF READERS

The principles for the compilation of text-books designed to facilitate rapid reading are, in the writer's opinion,[1] the following :

1. Selection and progression of vocabulary.

2. Distribution of vocabulary. The supply of new words should be so regulated that each new unit is accompanied by a vast number of ' running words '.

3. New words should be repeated. Some books content themselves with merely presenting new words. Structural words tend to recur, but content words, being dependent on subject matter, may not reappear in other contexts.

4. New words should be first presented in their normal and commonest meaning. An additional connotation is equivalent to a new word and its introduction ought to be postponed.

[1] Based in part on the principles so admirably demonstrated in Dr. West's *New Method Series* (Alternative Edition). Longmans.

5. The ' surrender ' value of the vocabulary presented should be considered—structural and other words of high frequency values should be presented early.

6. Selection and simplification of grammatical forms. Grammatical forms cannot be dealt with as simple questions of vocabulary. (Thus the meaning of *had been eating* cannot be inferred from a knowledge of each component word of the compound unless the form is familiar.) The grammatical scheme for the passive may be ahead of the corresponding active stage, but it should also proceed along progressive lines. In the early stages there ought to be fairly close correlation between the active and passive courses, the function of the latter being then to furnish additional practice for the application of forms learnt actively.

7. Sentences should be short, in the early stages. They need not be confined to the Simple or Compound, but they ought not to be involved with many subordinate clauses and phrases.

8. The content too should be simple and direct. There should be no difficulties inherent in the matter itself.

9. The content factor is not sufficiently appreciated. The reading matter should be as interesting and bright as possible and suitable to the mental age of the pupils. Suitable content matter helps to induce the pupils to forgo their preoccupation with language forms and immerse themselves in the progression of ideas, as they do in their own language.

10. The style should be fluid and natural ; one statement should lead logically and unabruptly to the next.

11. There should be progression of style as of vocabulary.

12. The dramatic element should be exploited. Children no less than adults enjoy suspense, anticipation and climax ; their sense of humour, though less subtle, is keen to appreciate the unusual and even the grotesque.

13. The taste of children of the ages of eleven and twelve should not be assumed to be ' highbrow '. Therefore the colloquial, modern everyday language should be presented to them in the early stages and the literary stylistic language only in the more advanced stages, when they can be expected to appreciate finer points.

14. Purely instructive matter should be left to the later stages. The main purposes of reading matter, which are to present vocabulary and promote the reading skill, can be equally or better achieved through stories, which have greater appeal than purely informative matter.

15. ' Readers ' in the advanced stages should alternate in style to cover the main forms, viz. the narrative, the descriptive and the colloquial.

16. Beyond the early stages the reading matter should deal preferably with English life ; this would assist in creating the desirable atmosphere.

17. There is no necessity to produce local Readers. The best stories are those that have stood the test of time by finding inclusion in the literatures of all countries. The same interest-features appeal to all children everywhere, and local stories dependent on local colour and language nuances are best left to the vernacular literature.

18. In certain localities it may be necessary to test whether the pupils can read correctly in their own language ; if found defective a prior training in the reading of the native language might be advisable.

Training Technique

There appear to be two schools of opinion on the technique to be adopted for the training of the pupil. One favours silent reading from the outset, the other oral reading.

(A) Silent Reading

The case for silent reading as both an end and a means might be stated as follows :

1. This is the modern reaction from the traditional form of language lesson in which oral reading predominated.

2. Oral reading on traditional lines virtually converted a collective lesson into a series of short individual lessons.

3. Silent reading is claimed to be eye- as opposed to lip-reading. The eye movements are rapid and can skip across the written pages by concentrating on key words.

4. Silent reading keeps the whole class active and enables the teacher to assist the weaker pupils.

5. It enables the pupils to work at their respective paces and thus solves the difficulties of extreme types.

6. The practice of silent reading in class prepares the pupils for library reading on their own.

7. It introduces the pupils to the art of skimming.

8. Oral reading is a specific skill which it is not essential for all the pupils to acquire.

(B) Oral Reading

The arguments in favour of oral reading are :

1. Reading aloud is a form of speech prompted by written symbols ; it is an aid to speech fluency, correct pronunciation and intonation.

2. If correct silent reading implies the application of a particular technique (eye movements over word-groups) the children must first be shown how to achieve it by example.

3. The words on the printed page are inert symbols which come to life when read out by a good reader. The teacher's rendering of a text is too valuable to be dispensed with.

4. As vocabulary is an important consideration, it ought to be presented to the ear as well as to the eye.[1]

5. Concert reading (in the early stage) is an alternative means of achieving general activity.

6. Silent reading may be carried on at home, but the classroom is the only place for controlled oral reading.

7. Oral reading provides a means of testing comprehension and checks superficial study resulting from attention to content and not to details.

8. Intensive reading is more important than extensive reading in the early stages and for the greater part of the course, indeed. 'Skimming' is not a desirable habit, particularly for school-children.

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[1] But note the following from the Canadian Report, pp. 152–3 :
'The results of the investigation so far obtained show that there is little difference whether language material is presented to the eye or ear of the learner, or whether the method of presentation requires articulation by him. It is more important that it be put before the student so as to stimulate new effort and that it provide him with practice in an activity which he himself desires to master. Thus the old grouping of individuals into those who are " eye-minded " and those who are " ear-minded " seems to have been discarded as a result of the discovery that the department of sense in which a subject is presented is not necessarily the one in which it is recalled and that the really important processes in learning do not depend on the organ by which the impressions are received but rather on central brain activities that condition the speed and accuracy with which so-called language capacities function.'

Conclusions

1. The ability to read silently and rapidly is the ultimate aim.

2. Oral reading is a specific and useful skill but not a major objective; therefore it is not essential for every pupil to acquire proficiency in it.

3. Oral reading is a useful means in the early stages to train the pupils in the technique of rapid reading.

4. Oral reading is useful throughout the course for the purpose of intensive reading in which attention is drawn to vocabulary, idioms and grammatical forms.

5. Oral reading is an auxiliary speech exercise.

6. It is the reading aloud of the text and not the oral reading practice of the pupils that is most important.

7. Silent reading is a valuable form of collective activity and ought to be practised in class. The class should be called upon (beyond the initial stages) to read a section rapidly and then answer questions on the contents. This method forces the slow readers to accelerate their reading pace.

Progressive Stages

As reading is a skill for which the pupil must be trained, it is advisable to proceed in a series of progressive stages with each serving as preparation for the next. The ultimate aim is free reading by the pupil unaided by the teacher but with the occasional aid of the dictionary. The end, however, need not also be the means; the early stages may have objectives of their own differing from that of the ultimate aim.

Many teachers err by introducing reading too early in the course, through excessive zeal or to enhance the

interest of their initial lessons. In the case of European pupils, whose cognate languages employ a similar alphabet, there may be some justification for this procedure, but in regard to Eastern children, to whom the English alphabet is completely novel, this method is not sound.

The introduction of reading ought to be deferred until the pupils have acquired (1) an initial speech vocabulary, (2) an oral mastery of a series of sentence patterns, and (3) an ability to identify standard letter combinations.

Fluent reading is possible from the outset if all verbal difficulties have been removed and the reading matter is perfectly familiar. Pauses in reading are caused by encountering difficulties, but if these are eliminated the pupil will be able to glide along with confidence.

LOOK-AND-SAY METHOD

There is a tendency to exaggerate the unphonetic character of the English language. While it is true that a vast proportion of the vocabulary presents phonetic irregularities, there is scarcely a single word that has not elements which conform to phonetic regularity. Almost all the consonants are usually constant, and on the whole the initial letters of words are consonants. At all events there are in every word elements that admirably serve as guides to the complete word, and provided that the word is familiar it is not difficult even for a beginner to identify it from a sight of the familiar elements. This is the basis of the look-and-say method, which induces the pupil to glance not at the component letters but at the complete word.

Later the process is extended to make the word-group the unit of reading ; the final stage is free reading on the same lines as in the native language.

For an interesting and valuable commentary on the methods of teaching reading to infants the teacher is referred to the relevant section on the teaching of English in the *Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers*, supplemented by the appropriate chapter in Madame Montessori's work.[1]

THE STAGES

The stages leading to proficiency in reading are the following :

THE FIRST STAGE

Preliminary. This is merely preliminary training to acquaint the pupils with the commonest symbols. The first step is to establish a close association between the initial letter of the word and the object it stands for, thus P for pen, pencil or picture ; B for book, box ; D for door, desk, etc. The second step is to show the symbol by itself and get the class to identify the objects it suggests.

For this purpose use should be made of illustrated cards, some with symbol and picture, others with symbols alone. All reference to symbols should be according to sound and not name, thus not *bee* but *b*.

The pupils should next be introduced to purely phonic combinations of sounds without consideration of meaning. The first series should be confined to words containing short vowel sounds, e.g. *bed, bid, bold, bad, but, book.*

A second series would introduce the diphthongs represented by the use of the mute *e*, e.g. *name, note, ride, roof.*

There is no necessity to run through the whole alphabet or to deal with all the sounds.

[1] *The Advanced Montessori Method*, Book 2, p. 164 et seq.

The Second Stage

Sentence Reading. This is the beginning of oral reading on the look-and-say method. Fluent reading is possible from the start if the reading matter is perfectly familiar. Initial reading practice will therefore take the form of reading statements employing the vocabulary and sentence types with which the children have grown familiar in speech.

Here are examples of reading text[1] for the initial stage to promote easy reading on rhythmic lines.

(*a*) I have a bag.
I have a book.
I have a ball.
I have a box.
I have a basket.
I have a pen.
I have a pencil.

(*b*) This is my pen.
This is my book.
This is my bag.
This is my head.
This is my right hand.
This is my left hand.
This is my right foot.

(*c*) You are the teacher.
You teach me.
You teach us.
You teach us English.
You teach our class.
You teach in this room.

(*d*) He is a schoolboy.
He goes to school.
He sits in class.
He learns English.
He writes in his writing book.
He writes with his right hand.

It is not essential to drill the weakest pupils intensively as they will develop their reading skill later. There are no ultimate failures by this or any other method.

What is essential is the insistence on fluency and correct reading habits from the outset. The teacher must be on the alert to check bad reading tendencies, such as pausing after

[1] From *An English Course*, Book 1, Alternative Edition.

individual words, wrong stress, finger-pointing, wrong pitch of voice, incorrect sounds, poor enunciation. Correct reading for this stage should be identical in sound with speech.

Concert reading, though useful, cannot be recommended, as it encourages a sing-song intonation, which may become habitual.

The Third Stage

Connected Matter. From sentences the pupils pass on to the reading of a continuous piece, usually in the form of a fable or anecdote. The time to introduce this is after the pupils have dealt with the past tense actively.

Here is an example of this type of reading matter.

THE FOOLISH MAN[1]

There was once a man. He had a bird. The bird gave him an egg every day. The eggs were of gold. They were gold eggs.

Now the man did not say, ' It is good to get a gold egg every day.' Oh, no ! he was a foolish man.

He said, ' I don't want one egg every day. I want all the eggs to-day.'

So, one day, the foolish man took a knife and cut the bird open. Of course that was the end of the bird, and that was the end of the gold eggs.

From that day there was no bird, and there were no more gold eggs.

So this is the end of my story.

The Fourth Stage

Extensive Reading. The reading of the previous stages was confined to sentences or short fables designed to

[1] From *An English Course*, Book 2.

present language in a carefully graduated sequence. It served the major purpose of speech and only introduced the pupil to the technique of reading.

In order to provide adequate matter for extensive reading practice an additional text-book is now required. This should take the form of a Reader containing simple stories of moderate length on the lines previously indicated.

The best time to introduce the Reader is soon after the pupils have dealt with all the simple tenses actively and have mastered a productive vocabulary of about three hundred words.

In the previous stages the reading followed intensive oral preparation. For extensive reading the pupil approaches fresh reading matter, the only difficulty of which is, or should be, its vocabulary.

Bearing in mind the importance of correlating speech and reading, the texts of this stage should be dealt with on the following lines :

The reading unit will be the complete story, if short, or a division of it that carries the story along to a natural pause. (Interest must be fully exploited and this is often lost when the story is broken up into a series of short sections and dealt with intensively.)

1. ORAL READING BY THE TEACHER.

The teacher should first tell the complete story, or an appreciable part of it, with an efficient rendering of its dramatic qualities. (Story-telling is a much neglected art but extremely valuable in the educational process.) The teacher's version need not coincide with that of the book ; he may add stylistic words as they occur to him in telling

the story, and offer additional explanations. The class may follow the story in their books or merely listen.

The teacher's rendering of the story will involve all the new words of the printed version. In order to overcome the verbal obstacles without breaking off for explanations, all fresh vocabulary should be written up beforehand on the blackboard with vernacular equivalents, or the pupils may have their ' Companions ' (if available) open in front of them for reference.

The experienced teacher will have little difficulty in gauging the understanding of the class by their mental absorption, but he should occasionally interpolate a question to test their comprehension.

2. SILENT READING BY THE CLASS.

Following the preliminary reading by the teacher, the class should be instructed to read the story silently, the teacher meanwhile walking round to assist the weaker pupils.

The silent reading should be followed up with a few outline questions, in sequence, to test understanding.

3. ORAL READING BY THE CLASS.

In the succeeding lesson, following home revision, the pupils should be questioned, with more attention to detail, on the whole story or division. Then the story is read orally by the pupils. To avoid mechanical work, the reading might take the form of long answers to leading questions, e.g. ' What did the king say (or do) when . . . ? ' The class is kept alert by having to find the answers somewhere in the text.

Only the better pupils should be called upon for the first reading. The others will benefit by the example of

the more fluent readers and the additional treatment of the text.

4. Preparation for Word Test.

At the beginning of every reading lesson the new words should be set out on the blackboard (without explanations), even if the pupils possess ' Companions '. The words should be arranged in columns : Nouns, verbs, adjectives, other words and phrases. Not every new word or phrase should be listed ; the teacher may decide that certain words are best left to the active course, e.g. *any*, *as . . . as*, *than*, *whose*.

After the reading of the story the attention of the class is directed to the blackboard and the new words are examined. First each word is put into a sentence taken from the text ; then the teacher uses it freely in general contexts.

The class is then rehearsed for a word test. Its purpose is to test understanding only and not recall, so the list of words remains on the blackboard. The pupils are called upon merely to identify the correct word which the teacher indicates by means of (*a*) definition (*b*) synonym (*c*) antonym (*d*) context (a sentence with a blank for the required word) (*e*) question (*f*) translation (resorted to if direct means are too involved).

5. Written Word Test.

The final test should be given at a subsequent lesson. It should follow the lines of the preparation, but answers should be given in writing. If possible the pupils should be supplied with a printed or mimeographed copy of the test. Only single words should be asked for and these are to be selected from a supplied list appearing on the test

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paper or the blackboard and arranged in columns as indicated. No longer than ten minutes need be devoted to the test, which is a comparatively simple one. Once the class has caught on to the method the results will prove extremely satisfactory and the teacher will feel confident in proceeding to the next story. Should the results be unsatisfactory on occasion the class must be rehearsed and tested again.

MODIFICATIONS FOR LATER WORK

On completion of the first Reader, the method may be modified in several directions. The preliminary telling of the story by the teacher may be dispensed with. Instead, the new words are listed, read out and explained and the pupils read the story or piece on their own, either at home or in class. There are advantages in silent reading in class, for the slower readers are forced to accelerate their reading pace. If the piece is complicated it may be dealt with section by section, the teacher asking questions and discussing the contents. The story or passage is then read out by the teacher or the best readers in the class and the vocabulary dealt with on the lines indicated.

Written questions on the reading matter belong to the writing course and need not be discussed here. They are a more advanced stage and should follow, not precede the reading.

THE FIFTH STAGE

There will be a stage in the general course when the close coordination of active and passive work must be considerably relaxed to enable each to proceed at its own appropriate pace, the latter rapidly extending vocabulary,

the former consolidating the knowledge of language forms and their application.

Coordination of reading and speech will, however, be maintained, to a lesser degree, by the oral testing of understanding and the summarising of content. Although pupils will not be expected to master the passive vocabulary for active application, there will be considerable infiltration as a consequence of this coordination.

The ultimate purpose of the reading course is to enable pupils to approach texts freely on their own. Their school practice hitherto has been confined to specially designed texts. There is, in consequence, danger that this may render them unfit to deal with reading matter employing a normal vocabulary and a natural style. It will therefore be advisable in the advanced stages to vary the reading experience of the pupils.

The class Reader need not now be a strictly graduated text-book but one adapted for Juniors in English-speaking countries. There are many suitable series which present the living language in a free natural style with its wealth of idiomatic expressions.

The pupils should now be trained to read freely by guessing at the connotation of fresh vocabulary, which is the method by which most native readers augment their vocabulary. Only as a last resort should the pupils be directed to the use of a dictionary—preferably English-English.

LIBRARY READING

An important, even vital, adjunct of the reading training is the use of a well-stocked library for home reading. Library reading, which implies the reading of books freely

for pleasure or instruction, or both, is not so much a skill to be inculcated as a habit to be acquired. Its success in a foreign-language course depends chiefly on the teacher's respecting its optional character and not classing it with other school features as an imposition.

Children will read books for pleasure if the language is comparatively easy and if the contents appeal to them. Fortunately there are several series admirably suited to the purpose.[1]

With practice the children acquire the skill of reading a book employing a familiar vocabulary almost as freely as they read in their own language. The habit is formed and they take it as a matter of course to have an English book always at hand. Voiced reaction to particular books obviates any necessity to test their understanding of the contents. Pleasure or disapproval presupposes understanding.

The time to start the extra-mural reading is soon after the first Reader has been completed. Care must only be taken to get the pupils to make the initial effort to complete a book on their own. With time less surveillance is necessary. Occasionally discussions may be held in class on the relative interest value of particular books, or pupils may be called upon to give an oral report on their home reading.

[1] Such as *New Method Supplementary Readers* (Longmans) and Faucett's *Oxford Course Supplementary Readers* (O.U.P.).

X. THE WRITING SKILL

'Written work should be kept within reasonable limits. Traditional practice rather tends to exaggerate its importance. As a test of accuracy and of grasp of knowledge already acquired a certain amount of it is indispensable. Its value as an educational instrument is much more doubtful ; it cannot vie with the ear as the natural means of emphasising concords, gender, order and idioms on the mind.'—*Modern Studies.*

THERE is a tendency to regard writing as synonymous with written composition, and proficiency in this skill as ability to discuss any topic in writing.

In a foreign-language course, however, the writing skill must be interpreted more broadly as the ability to represent words by means of written symbols. The aims may therefore be expressed as :

1. Ability to transcribe correctly, i.e. without errors and in neat English characters.

2. Ability to coordinate hand and ear, i.e. to write down correctly and fairly rapidly whatever is heard within the range of the active vocabulary.

3. The ability to use writing as a means to prove understanding of reading matter and in practising grammatical forms.

4. The ability to set out in writing a sequential series of ideas, i.e. composition.

SPEECH AND WRITING SKILLS CONTRASTED

Before proceeding to discuss these aims it might be enlightening to compare the two active skills of speech and writing. This is of some practical significance as opinions are divided on their relative merits as school subjects.[1]

[1] As previously indicated in Chapter III.

Speech

1. Speech involves sounds and calls for correctness of articulation, pronunciation and intonation. This is extremely difficult for the foreigner to master in the available time.

2. Speech must be spontaneous.

3. Errors in speech can be corrected immediately; hence there is less danger of wrong habits being formed.

4. There is more scope for prompting in speech; hence the greater range of subject matter for practice.

5. Oral practice calls for individual performance.

6. There are only one or two sounds to recall for words.

7. Improvement after leaving school depends only on opportunity for hearing or speaking.

Writing

1. Writing involves written symbols only. These can be perfectly mastered by the intellectual foreigner,[1] who is, for the purpose, at no disadvantage in comparison with the native.

2. Writing allows time for reflection.

3. Errors in writing are immediately registered; they are often not corrected or only after an appreciable delay.

4. Prompting is confined to questions and notes.

5. Writing lends itself to collective activity.

6. There are a series of symbols to recall for words.

7. Writing always calls for study and careful training, which are best pursued in organised classes under instruction.

[1] Joseph Conrad is an illustrious proof.

8. Natural speech does not coincide with grammatical language.

8. Writing calls for perfect grammatical accuracy ; hence it has a higher value as mental discipline.

9. Speech keeps the teacher active in class time.

9. Writing is an easy means of testing, but calls for much work by the teacher after the lesson.

10. ' Speech is a natural means of emphasising concords, gender, (tenses), order and idioms on the mind.'

10. Writing is a valuable means in the teaching of grammar, as the slower process of registration deepens the impression.

11. Speech represents the living language.

11. Writing is a form of inner speech and is therefore dependent on the prior skill.

In view of the numerous facets of these complex subjects, it is not surprising that teachers favour one or the other skill. It must be pointed out, however, that both are indispensable as means and call therefore for technical proficiency. Their extended use in the expression of thoughts is alone a matter for discussion.

EXPRESSION IN WRITING

When a pupil is asked to write on a given subject he has two main tasks :

(1) *what* to say, i.e. finding ideas ;
(2) *how* to express it, i.e. finding the necessary vocabulary, constructing sentences grammatically and in logical sequence.

FOR THE NATIVE PUPIL the first is usually the harder task, because his medium of thought being also the language of expression he has only to set on paper directly the thoughts that have come to him. The process may not be so simple and direct as here suggested because thinking is not necessarily conducted in complete sentences but possibly in haphazard pictures or verbal images.[1] But at all events when the writer mentally rehearses what he is going to write, he does so directly in the words of his own language. Even so, modern authorities[2] have strongly objected to the traditional type of essay or composition on set subjects, baldly indicated. They prefer to emphasise the *how* of writing, i.e. style, vocabulary, logical sequence of ideas, grammatical construction, rather than originality of thought. For this reason they advocate the substitution of detailed subjects, such as : dramatic situations, part of a story for completion, interviews between past and living celebrities, development of outlines, in lieu of such subjects as, ' If I were rich ', ' The Art of Printing ', ' Winter ', ' Fortitude ', ' Every Cloud has a Silver Lining '.

FOR THE FOREIGN PUPIL there is an additional difficulty. As the medium of his thought processes is his own language there is initially a wide gulf between his ideas and his ability to express them in another language. His approach inevitably takes the form of composition in his own language to be translated into the new medium. In other words, the task becomes virtually an advanced exercise in translation. If the pupil has been efficiently trained on

[1] See Ballard's *Thought and Language*. University of London Press, 1934.

[2] Particularly Sir Philip Hartog in *An Examination of Examinations* (Macmillan, 1936), and *The Writing of English*.

translation lines he stands a better chance of producing a passable essay than one trained on Direct Method lines who first attempts this subtle form of translation. In either case the results are seldom satisfactory, for bright idiomatic language can only be expected when the process is clear and direct. This can be seen in the case of English schoolchildren translating French or German into what proves to be stilted and often incorrect English.

This is not meant to imply that foreign pupils cannot ever be expected to express their thoughts in correct English ; it means that they need careful training, in the course of which they ought not to be called upon to indulge in a form of composition which entails mental translation.

A SPECIAL TECHNIQUE. As the pupil's powers of expression ought not to be unduly stretched, but gradually extended, it follows that the ideas to be expressed must be made to approximate to his language powers. In other words, the usual process of composition must be reversed. Instead of attempting to fit words to his free mental processes, the pupil must first practise his ability to express given ideas. If he is completely freed from the necessity of seeking what to say, he will be able to concentrate on points of language and gradually acquire the essential confidence and correct writing habits. Errors can only be reduced to a minimum when the scope for error is limited. Limitation must be at the extreme in the early stages and be gradually relaxed as the language experience of the pupil increases.

This calls for a systematic course, along the collateral lines of vocabulary and grammatical progression. But first we must consider two other features.

DICTATION

The importance of Dictation in a foreign-language course is usually underrated. If efficiently applied it is an aid to every phase of language training. Its major purposes are : (1) ear-training, (2) practising correct orthography, and (3) punctuation.

The teaching of orthography by means of oral spelling is less reliable than the written method, which strengthens visual memory and leads to manual habits.

Dictation obliges the pupil to note the natural pauses in speech, and thereby induces him to appreciate the significance of the sentence and its component parts. Other grammar features, such as the distinction between Direct and Reported Speech, may likewise be better impressed on the child's mind through dictation than by direct grammar instruction.

The ability to set down what is heard is a skill that calls for intensive training, the effectiveness of which lies not so much in the actual performance as in the preparation for it by the pupil. In the elementary stages unprepared dictation has little training value except as a test.

For the earlier stages, preparation should be carried out in class, with the use of the blackboard to aid visual memory. It is desirable to draw up standard lists for each term or year and to insist on their being thoroughly mastered at the appropriate stage. If this is not done, pupils will reach the top class with persistent spelling errors which will mar all their written work.

Punctuation must be dealt with systematically throughout the course. In the first year the beginning and end of the sentence should be announced, but from the second

year this prompting may be dropped. The same applies to question and quotation marks.

In the earliest stages dictation practice should be a part of almost every lesson, and later it should be given at least once a week.

If dictation is to serve as a means of ear-training, the pace at which it is delivered is an important factor. Speed must be encouraged, and may be expected when the piece has been rehearsed thoroughly beforehand. It is best to read the piece out in word-groups and once only. When the passage is concluded it should be read out again so that omissions may be inserted. For unprepared dictation the whole piece should be read out before the actual dictation.

CORRECTION OF WRITTEN WORK

Satisfactory progress cannot be expected in writing unless the pupils indulge in considerable practice. This is particularly the case in countries where the English alphabet is completely novel. This creates an acute problem for the teacher.

The difficulty lies not in the class-time factor, since much of it may be done as homework, but in correcting what has been written. As written mistakes unchecked tend to be repeated and thus become habitual, the teacher must either correct all the written work (especially in the first year) or refrain from setting what he cannot examine carefully. This suggestion can be modified by stating that the teacher ought to correct all the work of the weaker pupils and only occasionally that of ' reliable pupils '. Undoubtedly the question of marking written work is a sore point with teachers who rightly feel that their work is more onerous than that of most of their colleagues.

THE STAGES

THE PRELIMINARY STAGE

Transcription. The Preliminary stage of writing is training in the formation of letters. For European pupils the mechanical side is a simple matter : the teacher has only to dwell on the difference between the English and Continental forms, mainly capitals. Many teachers from Europe are often unaware of distinctions and introduce the wrong forms of I, J, T. Most English writers use print capitals, which are not joined to the other letters.

The use of printed cursive writing in preference to the ordinary linked writing is a matter for the teacher or school authority to decide. Script has undoubted advantages in the early stages, but if a transition to the ordinary writing is to be effected later, the early advantages may be neutralised by the later difficulties.[1]

For pupils from Asia and Africa, the whole alphabet being novel, much more practice will be needed to familiarise the pupils with the mechanics of writing. Their training will call for an appreciable part of each lesson, to be followed by additional practice at home.

For initial practice a number of consonants are selected. These are then combined with a vowel to form phonetic words. The pupils thus combine reading with writing and a double purpose is served.

Transcription should be carried on, for non-European pupils, throughout the whole of the first year, concurrently with the introduction of fresh features. The pupils must

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[1] The writer favours the introduction of the simplified form, with modifications, of the writing patterns devised by Miss Marion Richardson. University of London Press, 1936.

grow accustomed to converting print into their own cursive writing.

THE SECOND STAGE

Sentence Construction. The first step towards sentence composition is simply a modification of transcription. It may take the form of completing sentences by substituting a word for a picture, or of filling in blanks in a sentence with appropriate words taken from the current lesson. An alternative form of sentence construction is the use of a substitution table, with variables in each column of a pattern.

Early practice may also be given in functional grammar by means of simple exercises calling for conversion from first to third person, from singular to plural, from positive to negative, provided that grammatical terminology is not used.

THE THIRD STAGE

Answering Questions. The first questions should be of a uniform type, with a model answer at the head of the exercise. This exercise is comparatively easy as the question serves as a guide to both vocabulary and sense and generally calls merely for a rearrangement of the words.

The application of oral questioning to reading matter has been noted ; this can be followed up with similar questioning in writing. If the questions are judiciously selected, the prompted answers will form a summary of the story, thus initiating continuous composition.

THE FOURTH STAGE

Continuous Composition. Pupils may be given early practice in continuous composition by getting them to

write out a fable or anecdote which has been thoroughly rehearsed orally beforehand. This form of composition does not differ materially from an exercise in dictation, except for the additional test of memory. The class as a whole should be ready for this type of composition during the second year. Many teachers err in postponing it unduly. As the pupils do not need to seek ideas, or even vocabulary, their possible errors will be grammatical and orthographical. Having rehearsed the composition orally they will be able to set it down rapidly, and thus acquire confidence and fluency.

THE FIFTH STAGE

Summarising. Giving the gist of reading matter is a valuable exercise both mentally and linguistically. It is an excellent introduction to free expression as it supplies the matter and much of the vocabulary and allows the pupil to concentrate on form. Even if the pupil merely selects appropriate sentences from the text and links them together he is engaging in a valuable exercise as the transcribed sentences form a model composition.

THE SIXTH STAGE

Writing out a given Story. For the elementary school the final stage ought not to be free composition on set subjects. The most that can be expected is that the pupils show that they are masters of the technique of writing and can coordinate hand and ear by setting out in correct form a simple story or description told to them in class.

This should be the type of written exercise in the final year, in addition to summarising. Odd pupils may be

capable of more, others may be incapable of even this, but. the class as a whole will profit most from practice of this nature, and success in it would justify the making of writing a major objective in the elementary school.

THE SEVENTH STAGE

Composition on Set Subjects. When general subjects are introduced for composition they should follow careful oral preparation. The theme should be fully discussed and an outline scheme drawn up with notes and guide-words.

The pupils must now be trained to reduce their thoughts to their simplest form, instead of proceeding—as in their mother-tongue—to set them down directly in writing. Since any notion may be expressed in several ways, the pupil must first mentally experiment until he has touched on a form with which he is familiar. The practising of familiar forms is the essence of language training.

XI. A CORRELATED SCHEME

COORDINATION of all language features in a single comprehensive scheme may be effected by means of a progressive course arranged in stages. The advantages of marking progress by stages instead of by years or text-books are :

1. It makes the course flexible, each stage having its own major and subsidiary purposes.

2. It marks progress by the development of skills involving knowledge, and not by knowledge alone.

3. It ensures adequate attention to all language features.

4. It enables preliminary work to be done before the introduction of a fresh feature.

5. It makes greater allowance for the growing mental development of the children, with appropriate variation of methods and devices.

6. It makes the teacher independent of any system, as the text-books may be chosen to subserve an immediate aim.

7. It simplifies testing ; instead of waiting till the end of the year the teacher may test at the end of each stage.

8. It obliges the teacher to formulate ultimate and immediate objectives, with consequent evaluation of methods and devices.

9. When a class is handed over to another teacher their general proficiency might be assumed, and much time saved in testing and revising.

10. If general agreement were reached on the necessity and scope of standard stages, the transfer of pupils from one school to another would call for little adjustment.

11. It would be a convenience for supervisors in gauging the relative standard of a class.

12. It would enable them to check undue attention to one feature and neglect of others.

The following scheme is intended mainly for pupils in Elementary Schools or the corresponding classes in Secondary Schools. The minimum number of lesson-periods a week is assumed to be four, with a half-hour's home preparation preceding each class lesson.

The duration of each stage is variable, dependent on the number of periods available and the intelligence of the pupils. It need hardly be pointed out that the class ought not to proceed to a subsequent stage until the teacher is satisfied that the major purpose of the previous stage has been achieved.

The First Stage

This stage is concerned mainly with preliminary work. Its major purpose is EAR-TRAINING.
Subsidiary purposes are :

> Sound drill.
> Transcription (*letters*).

Each lesson will include all three features.

EAR-TRAINING.

Speech is confined to the teacher, the pupils responding by executing commands silently. The method is purely ' Direct ' (no translation). The end of the stage is reached when the pupils are able to respond automatically to all commands within the initial vocabulary (about a hundred words).

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The teacher's speech should be enunciated clearly and sharply, at first with exaggerated emphasis, but gradually approaching normal speech. Gesture should accompany the introduction of fresh vocabulary, but not in revision.

SOUND DRILL.

This part of the lesson will be conducted in the vernacular, since its purpose is reproduction of sounds and not of speech. For the same reason vocabulary is not a significant point. Word lists may therefore be used without reference to their meaning. Thus, *Too*, *Toh*, *Taw*, *Tah*, *Tay*, *Tee*, *Tow*, *Toi*, *Tair*, with variation of consonants. Short and long sounds should be contrasted, e.g. *lip—leap*, *get—gate*, *foot—food*.

TRANSCRIPTION.

As instruction in the mechanics of writing is best given in the vernacular, it may be commenced in the first lesson. For this stage it should deal with the formation of letters, without, however, involving the naming of the alphabet; the letter may be referred to as the symbol of the sound it represents.

THE SECOND STAGE

The major purpose is the introduction of SPEECH. Subsidiary purposes are:

> Sound drill.
> Reading (*phonic words*).
> Transcription (*words*).

SPEECH.

Pupils will be trained to give automatic replies to stereotyped questions. The method is intensive. The receptive

vocabulary of the previous stage is now converted into a productive vocabulary, with the addition of a small range of new words.

SOUND DRILL.

Sound drill will be conducted in the vernacular as in the previous stage. As an introduction to reading and spelling the following short sounds will be grounded by numerical identification. Thus : 1, $\ddot{a}$; 2, $\ddot{e}$; 3, $\ddot{i}$; 4, $\ddot{o}$; 5, $\ddot{u}$; 6, $\widetilde{oo}$. The teacher reads out a list of phonic words containing one of these vowel sounds and calls on the class to identify the sound (as listed on the blackboard) by stating its number. This is essential training as mistakes in spelling are due to faulty hearing.

Some of the difficult consonant sounds should also be dealt with, e.g. *th* (*this*), *th* (*thing*), *ch*, *r*, *j*, *h*, *w*.

READING.

This is preliminary training to acquaint the pupils with printed letters and phonetic combinations. Extensive use should be made of illustrated cards or the blackboard. Correlation with the speech scheme will be effected by getting the pupils to identify known words from the initial symbol. Thus B for *book*, D for *desk*. This will be followed by the reading of lists of three-letter phonic words. The digraphs *Sh*, *Ch*, *Th* must be treated as single symbols and presented accordingly.

TRANSCRIPTION.

Coordination with reading will be effected by getting the class to transcribe in cursive letters the printed phonic words already practised orally. These may likewise be dictated.

GRAMMAR.

The grammatical features dealt with incidentally in this stage comprise :

1. The regular plural formation in *s* and *es*.
2. The simple present, positive and negative of the verbs *be* and *have*.
3. The personal pronouns *I*, *me*, . . . the possessive adjectives *my*, *your*, . . .
4. The use and position of adjectives.
5. *a*, *the*.

THE THIRD STAGE

The major purpose of this stage is the introduction of READING.

Subsidiary purposes are :

> Speech practice.
> Ear-training.
> Transcription (*sentences*).

READING.

The pupils are now given intensive practice in reading aloud complete sentences on the look-and-say method. Their progress will be rapid, as they will only read sentences made familiar by oral practice.

SPEECH.

Each lesson will commence with oral practice exercising the words and sentences which will form the subsequent reading matter.

EAR-TRAINING.

Identification of further sounds by numbers, e.g.

7. $\bar{a}$ as in *day*.
8. $\bar{e}$,, *me*.

9. ī as in *my*.
10. ō ,, *no*.
11. o͞o, u as in *room*.

TRANSCRIPTION

The sentences of the reading text should be used as copy. Exercises may be given with missing words (indicated by blanks or illustrations of objects).

GRAMMAR.

The main additional feature is the Simple present of verbs involving the use of *do*, *does* for the negative. This calls for particular attention to the third person, singular.

SINGING.

Songs are a valuable aid to language teaching as they promote interest and lead to fluency and correct articulation. Their successful application, however, depends primarily on the musical ability of the teacher.

As the vocabulary of old English songs generally includes archaic words and phrases and is invariably beyond the scope of pupils in this stage, no attempt need be made to teach the meaning of the words ; a general explanation in the vernacular will suffice. The introduction of English songs and perhaps nursery rhymes will prove a welcome relief from the necessarily intensive character of the speech drill.

THE FOURTH STAGE

This stage marks the transition from the detached sentence to consecutive sentences. This is accomplished

by means of the Gouin device of sequential series to encourage continuous speech.   All three processes—speech, reading and writing—are applied.   No additional grammar feature is introduced but much practice is given in the use of the two classes of verbs (forming the negative with or without *do*).

WRITING.

This becomes a major purpose.   It comprises :

> (1) transcription,
> (2) exercises,
> (3) dictation.

EXERCISES.

The following types are employed :

(1) completing sentences by replacing missing words,
(2) answering questions of a uniform type,
(3) grammar exercises :

> (*a*) converting words from singular to plural,
> (*b*) converting sentences from first to third person,
> (*c*) converting sentences from positive to negative.

DICTATION.

The brighter pupils should be called to the blackboard to write familiar words and sentences.   At the next lesson the same sentences should be dictated to the class and the correct form written on the blackboard.   The pupils then correct their errors and re-write the sentences.   At a subsequent lesson the same sentences are dictated again and the papers are handed in for correction by the teacher.

The class should now be taught the names of the letters. Since the pupils will have learnt how to read, there will be no danger of their now confounding the names of the letters with the sounds they represent.

EAR-TRAINING.

The following sounds may be taught by numbers:

(12) ar   as in *are*.
(13) or   ,,   *or*.
(14) er   ,,   *her*.
(15) ow   ,,   *now*.
(16) oy   ,,   *boy*.

The words read out for identification of vowel sound may now be selected from the vocabulary of the pupils. It will thus serve the additional purpose of revising vocabulary.

THE FIFTH STAGE

The main purpose of this stage is the introduction of the PAST AND FUTURE TENSES.

ORAL PRACTICE.

Having followed the child's daily activities in the present, we proceed to discuss the same activities in the past. Fresh vocabulary is introduced, chiefly verbs.

Speech serves as an introduction to the reading text, which in turn provides matter for continuous oral reproduction.

READING.

With the introduction of the past tense the reading text may now take the form of a story (fable or anecdote). The story thus becomes the central feature, coordinating

the three activities : oral preparation, reading of story, oral questions and reproduction, written answers to questions.

GRAMMAR.

One major feature is dealt with in a progressive series of lessons with revision exercises to consolidate knowledge.

The scheme for this stage comprises the following, in order of presentation :

1. Main purpose : *to teach the Past Tense.*
    Past of *be* and *have.*
    Past of weak verbs (*d* or *ed* endings).
    Past of strong verbs.
    Negative past.
    Can, could.
    Interrogative past.
    REVISION.
        Plurals.
        Third Person singular, present.
        The past forms.

2. Main purpose : *to teach the Future.*
    Simple future.
    Negative future.
    Interrogative future (1st person).
    Past and Future.
    Interrogative future (2nd and 3rd persons).
    REVISION.
        Plurals.
        Present, past and future.
        Negative by addition of *not.*
        Negative present with *do, does.*
        Negative past with *did.*

3. Main purpose : *to teach the Present Continuous.*

Revision of Simple Present.
Present Continuous.
Simple and Continuous.
Must.
REVISION.
Plurals.
Negative (*be* model).
Negative (with *do*).
Negative (with *did*).

DICTATION.

Once a week, following preparation. The teacher should announce the beginning and end of each sentence and should insist on the correct use of the capital letter.

SOUND DRILL.

Revise the cardinal sounds according to numbered lists.

THE SIXTH STAGE

The main innovation is the beginning of EXTENSIVE READING.

For this purpose a special Reader should be introduced containing stories of moderate length, written mainly in the Simple and Continuous tenses. (The method of treatment is indicated in the chapter on Reading.)

Language progression will be followed in the active course using a special text-book.

GRAMMATICAL PROGRESSION.

The following scheme will cover this stage and the next.

1. Main feature : *nouns and pronouns.*

  a, an.
  my, mine, etc.
  self compounds.
  who? what?
  who, which, that (relatives).
  whose.
  Revision.

2. Main feature : *adjectives.*

  positive degree.
  more than.
  -er form.
  most of.
  -est form.
  Revision.

3. Main feature : *adverbs and irregular adjectives.*

  good, better, best, bad, worse, worst.
  many, a few, a lot, a little.
  any, some, none.
  any, some, no compounds.
  adverbs from adjectives.
  good, well.
  comparison of adverbs.
  ordinal numbers.
  Revision.

4. Main purpose : *defective verbs,* and *Continuous Tense.*

  can—able to ; must—have to ; can—may.
  should, would.
  Interrogative with *do.*
  „   by inversion.

Simple for Present Continuous.
Past Continuous.
Future Continuous.
Shall, will.
Revision.

All revision serves the additional purpose of reviewing vocabulary.

DICTATION.

Pupils are now trained to put in full-stops and capital letters without any prompting by the teacher. Prompting of the comma and quotation marks.

THE SEVENTH STAGE

Main purpose : WRITTEN COMPOSITION.

Continuous composition will be initiated through the medium of fables or anecdotes contained in the language book. Following intensive oral reproduction the story should be written out on the blackboard by selected pupils. At a subsequent lesson the guide-words should be dictated. If the results are satisfactory the class may proceed to write out the story in class. In this way errors will be minimised and confidence instilled.

READING.

The oral reading by the teacher may be dispensed with, as indicated in the separate scheme.

LIBRARY.

Library reading should now be a regular feature for all the pupils.

The Eighth Stage

Instead of a single major purpose to which the other activities are contributory, there will be three major purposes, each following its own scheme. Coordination will be maintained without restricting the respective rate of progress. Thus speech will still be applied to test the understanding of reading matter, and written work will be set on the same text but on an extensive, not intensive, scale : pupils will not be expected to make active use of all the vocabulary met with passively.

The purposes of this stage will comprise :

PASSIVE.

Acceleration of the reading pace.
Library reading.

ACTIVE.

SPEECH.

(*a*) oral summarising of reading matter.

The pupils will be trained to discriminate between essential and illustrative details. The teacher should demonstrate how to reduce long statements to a series of notes.

(*b*) discussion of notes.

WRITING.

(*a*) composition (as in previous stage).
(*b*) exercises, for vocabulary and grammar.
(*c*) dictation.

Pupils may now be expected to insert quotation marks and commas without prompting. Oral spelling may now be extensively used.

GRAMMAR.

The following features will be dealt with :
Present Perfect Tense.
Past Perfect Tense.
Reported Speech.
Nouns : all plural forms.
Adverbs ; position of . . .
Articles (revised).
Prepositions and Conjunctions (as vocabulary).

THE NINTH STAGE

The main purpose of this stage is to round off the pre-liminary work prior to a possible final stage of free appli-cation. In this stage the teacher must complete the minimum schemes of vocabulary and grammar, and assure himself of his pupils' mastery of the fundamental language points dealt with in the previous stages.

The disparity between the Passive and Active know-ledge will now be sufficiently great to permit of the adoption of a new principle, *viz.* ' Take care of the Active and the Passive will take care of itself '.

PASSIVE.

The function of library reading increases in importance in this stage, as it may largely be depended on to give the necessary practice in the exercise and extension of the receptive vocabulary. Library reading may be further encouraged by devoting a period a fortnight, or even weekly, to silent reading in class, the teacher utilising the opportunity to question pupils individually on their home reading.

SPEECH.

The restriction of speech to text-book work ought now to be considerably relaxed. Various devices will need to be adopted to encourage spontaneous and continuous speech. The most suitable device for this stage is the discussion of extensive reading matter following note-making at home. This serves the double purpose of language practice and mental training. Following this discussion the whole story or chapter should be summarised and at a subsequent lesson be written out as an exercise in composition.

Cautious attempts may now be made to get the pupils to converse freely on topics of general interest.

DICTATION.

The passage for dictation will not be indicated, but only the section, page or chapter from which it will be selected. This will serve as a transitionary step towards unprepared dictation.

GRAMMAR.

Apart from revision, additional features will comprise :

Sequence of tenses.
Abstract nouns.
Concord.
Active and Passive Voice.

THE TENTH STAGE

This is a possible final stage for an elementary school course or the opening stage of the first secondary class.

READING.

Intensive reading of texts with special attention to idioms. Idioms should be listed and practised. Follow-

ing the introduction of formal grammar, vocabulary should be extended by treating all the commonest derived forms of caption words (according to the various parts of speech and with the aid of prefixes and suffixes).

SPEECH.
- (a) Discussion of reading.
- (b) General discussion following presentation of subjects by selected pupils.

COMPOSITION.
- (a) Summarising of reading matter.
- (b) General subjects following oral discussion.

GRAMMAR.

With the extension of written composition, the need for formal grammar increases. Certain errors can only be checked when the teacher is able to explain the fundamental nature of the mistake. For instance, a recurrent lapse on the part of foreigners is the misuse of word-order. It is difficult to explain word-order satisfactorily without involving the parts of speech and the rules of syntax.

The following scheme is therefore prescribed[1] :

The Parts of Speech.
Subject and Verb.
Verb and Object.
Transitive and Intransitive use.
Position of Adverb.
The Phrase.
The Clause.
The Sentence.
Word-Order.

[1] For the method of teaching formal grammar the teacher is referred to *An English Course for Foreign Children*, Book IV.

DICTATION.

Unprepared.

TRANSLATION.

Since it is a major problem in language teaching to get the pupils to forgo the use of their own language and project themselves psychologically into an entirely different sphere, the adoption of translation as a regular feature in the primary stages was not recommended. In the more advanced stages, however, the advantages of translation exercises outweigh the possible harm of associating the two languages. Points of grammar and idiomatic phrases may pass unnoticed by the pupil working exclusively in the one medium, but will perhaps make a stronger impression when dealt with from a fresh angle. The source of most errors is usually to be found in the mental translation indulged in by the pupils, and the vernacular language is therefore a good starting-point for correction.

For this stage translation should be restricted to single sentences or phrases, from the vernacular into English. It is preferable to select examples from texts previously studied, thus recalling the pupils' attention to familiar matter and incidentally revising past work.

In subsequent stages translation may be made a major feature, as it is undoubtedly a valuable mental disciplinary exercise demanding complete mastery of vocabulary and all other language features.